

Study on Low Power RF ICs with Adaptive Bias Circuits for Wireless Communications

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with Adaptive Bias Circuits
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Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background of this research

Nowadays, wireless communications have impacted our daily life. Mobile phones can be used anytime and anywhere to make a call, to send short messages and to surf the Internet, etc. Transceiver ICs are the key components for wireless communications and the power consumption of transceiver decides the battery-time of the mobile terminals. For instance, with the development of IoT, there is a huge demand of the wireless communication systems connecting the IoT sensors and wearable devices to the Internet. The IoT devices are generally supplied with small batteries with critically limited capacity, such as button battery, solar-cell battery and energy harvesting system. Thus, decreasing the power consumption of transceiver ICs in the IoT device plays a crucial role.

In this dissertation, several adaptive bias circuits are proposed to decrease the power consumption of the RF building blocks in transceiver. Since bias circuits are flexible and have negligible influence on the operational frequency, the proposed adaptive circuits are expected to be widely utilized in various wireless communication systems.

The frequency band interest in this dissertation is GHz-band including 2.4-GHz band (IEEE S-band), 5-GHz band (IEEE C-band) and 80-GHz band (IEEE W-band) [1]. The 2.4-GHz band could be applied for the wireless communications of Bluetooth [2]-[3], WLAN 802.11b/g [4] and Zigbee [5], etc. Since the 2.4-GHz band is crowded and heavily used to the point, frequent dropped connections and degradation of service limits the data rate of the 2.4-GHz band wireless communications.

The 5-GHz band could be applied for the 802.11a Wireless Local Area Network (WLAN) communications with more usable channels, higher reliability and higher data rate than 2.4-GHz band communications. WLAN has become very popular not only in home and office but also at large public areas (airports, large shopping centers and sports stadiums, for instance). The WLAN 802.11a standard uses a 52-subcarrier Orthogonal Frequency-Division Multiplexing (OFDM) with a maximum raw data rate of 54 Mbit/s [6].

With the development of device process, the cut-off frequency and maximum

oscillation frequency of transistor increases, which make the RF ICs could operate at higher frequency. Recently, research on RF ICs in W-band has become popular for several applications, such as automotive radar [7]-[8], high-speed networks [9], imaging and gesture recognition [10]. In 2009, European Telecommunication Commission Institute (ETSI) has assigned a Short Range Radar (SRR) band from 77 to 81 GHz [7]. In 2012, the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) has recommended vehicular collision avoidance radars in the frequency band from 77 to 81 GHz [8] and fixed wireless systems (FWS) operating in the 71-76 and 81-86 GHz range [9]. A 94 GHz pulsed-radar transceiver was reported for the applications of imaging and gesture recognition [10].

1.2 Motivations of this research

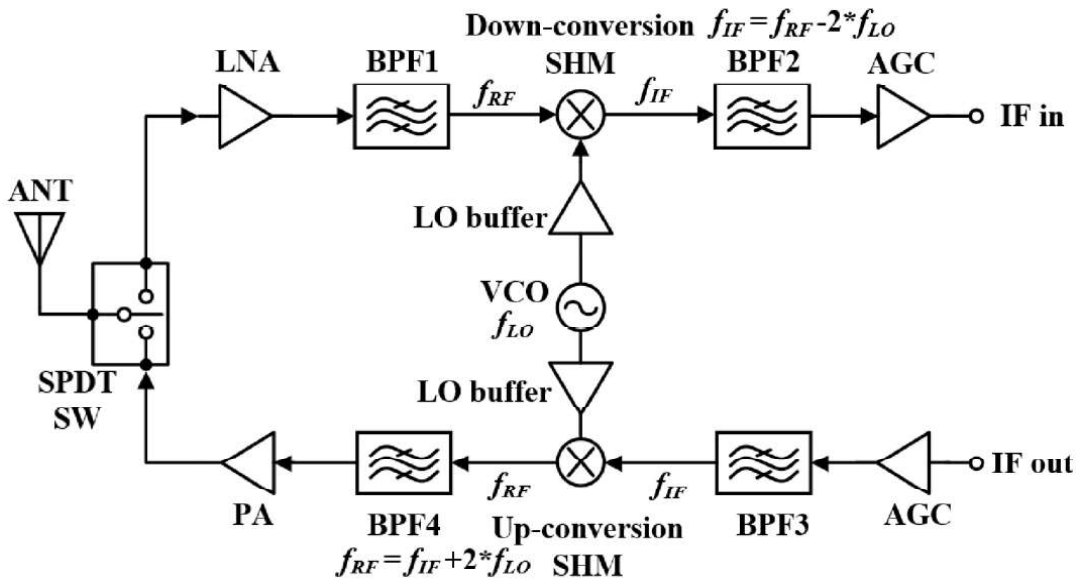


Figure 1-1 A typical block diagram of sub-harmonic transceiver IC in [11].

Figure 1-1 shows a typical block diagram of sub-harmonic transceiver IC in [11]. In the receiver mode, the RF input signal is received by the antenna (ANT) and switched to the Single-Pole-Double-Throw Switch (SPDT SW) to the Low Noise Amplifier (LNA). The LNA amplifies the RF signal. The Band Pass Filter (BPF1) works as an “image-reject” filter with a relatively small loss in the RF band and a large attenuation in the image band. The Voltage-Controlled Oscillator (VCO) generates the LO signal for mixing with the RF signal. The down-conversion Sub-harmonic Mixer (SHM) mixes the RF signal with the second harmonic of the LO signal and down-converts the RF signal

to the IF signal ($f_{IF}=f_{RF}-2*f_{LO}$). The BPF2selects the IF channel of interest and removes the DC offset caused by theLO leakage of the mixer. Then Automatic Gain Control (AGC) amplifier amplifies the IF signal.

The transmitter architecture is similar to the receiver, but with the operations performed in “reverse” order. In the transmitter mode, the IF signal is firstly strengthened by the Automatic Gain Control (AGC) circuit and thenselected by the BPF3between AGC and Up-conversion SHM. Then the IF signal is mixed with the LO signal and up-converted to RF signal by the up-conversion SHM. The BPF4works as image-reject filter and attenuates the image signal generated by the up-conversion SHM. Then the RF signal is amplified by the power amplifier (PA), switchedby the SPDT SW andtransmittedthrough the ANT.

Table 1-1 Power consumption of each block in a 2.4/5-GHz band transceiver IC [12]

Block		Receiver		Transmitter			Total
		LNA & mixer	LO buffer	PA & mixer	LO buffer	VCO & PLL	
DC power	(mW)	36	36	72	14.4	39.6	198
	(%)	18.2	18.2	36.4	7.3	20.0	100

Table 1-2 Power consumption of each block in a 60-GHz band transceiver IC [13]

Block		Receiver		Transmitter			Total
		LNA	Mixer & LO buffer	Mixer & LO buffer	PA (On-chip & external)	VCO & PLL	
DC power	(mW)	30	44	53	154+732	80	1093
	(%)	2.7	4.0	4.8	81.1	7.3	100

Table 1-1and Table 1-2show the power consumption of each block in a 2.4/5-GHz band transceiver IC [12]and a 60-GHz band transceiver IC [13], respectively. In both transceivers, the PA is the most power-consuming block.VCO and LO buffer also significantly influence thepower consumption of transceiver IC.Thus, decreasing the power consumption of PA, VCO and LO buffer is effective to decreases the power consumption of transceiver. It is noted that the power consumption of LO buffer is decreased by decreasing the output power of LO buffer, which is decided by the LO

power requirement of SHM.

Hence, the research objective in this dissertation is to decrease the power consumption of transceiver by decreasing the power consumption of PA (Chapter 2), VCO (Chapter 3) and decreasing the LO power requirement of SHM (Chapter 4).

1.2.1 Power Amplifier IC

In Chapter 2, a high linearity and high efficiency SiGe Heterojunction Bipolar Transistor (HBT) PA IC is designed for WLAN 802.11a applications. In transceiver, PA is the most power-consuming block. PA with higher efficiency has low power consumption with the same out power. Thus, PA should be designed with high Power Added Efficiency (PAE).

Since the PA IC is designed for WLAN 802.11a applications, OFDM signal is inserted as input signal. In OFDM transmissions, a large number of subcarriers are transmitted in parallel, which allows subcarriers to either add or subtract from one another at each point in time. As a result, the power statistics of an OFDM transmission are almost Gaussian in nature, leading to high Peak-to-Average-Power Ratio (PAPR) up to 10 dB in 64 Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (QAM) OFDM transmission [14]. In addition to the amplitude, the phase of the signal is also modulated in OFDM transmission. Hence, the PA should be designed with low gain compression (low AM-AM) and low phase distortion (low AM-PM) at large signal to meet the Error Vector Magnitude (EVM) specification for WLAN 802.11a communication.

In summary, the PA IC should be designed with high PAE while meeting the EVM specification. Thus, an adaptive bias circuit is proposed for the PA IC design. Under the low RF input power, the bias supplies the PA with small bias current, which decreases the power consumption and improves the efficiency. Under the high input RF power, the bias circuit adaptively increases the bias current of PA, which provides the PA with a large swing range of output current and improves the linearity of PA. Hence, the proposed bias circuit decreases the power consumption of PA IC without degrading the linearity performance at large signal.

1.2.2 Voltage-Controlled Oscillator IC

In Chapter 3, a low voltage and low power CMOS VCO IC is designed for 2.4-

GHz band applications. Since the low power communication protocols such as Bluetooth Low Energy (LE) and Zigbee utilize 2.4-GHz band. This frequency band is quite suitable for the application of IoT devices. It is popular to use the low voltage power supply such as solar-cell battery and energy harvesting system for IoT devices. Thus, it is important to decrease the power supply of VCO. In addition, decreasing the power supply is also an effective method to decrease the power consumption. Thus, the VCO is designed for ultra-low-voltage operation.

The oscillation start-up is a critical issue for low voltage VCO design. It is well known that when gate-to-source bias voltage (V_{gs}) of transistor is lower than the threshold voltage (V_{TH}), transistor has NO gain at small signal and has gain at large signal. Thus, VCO requires high bias voltage for oscillation start-up and a low bias voltage to maintain the low power oscillation.

In summary, the VCO IC should be designed for low voltage and low power operation with robust oscillation start-up. Thus, an adaptive bias circuit is proposed for the VCO IC design. Initially, the bias circuit provides the VCO with high V_{gs} bias for robust oscillation start-up. After oscillation is detected, the bias circuit adaptively decreases the bias voltage and shifts the VCO into low power steady state. Hence, the proposed bias circuit decreases the power consumption of VCO IC without influencing the robustness of oscillation start-up.

1.2.3 Down-conversion Sub-harmonic Mixer IC

In Chapter 4, a low power SiGe Sub-harmonic Mixer (SHM) IC is designed for 80-GHz band applications. It is noted that employing a SHM instead of mixer is an attractive solution in the millimeter-wave superheterodyne receiver. When the operation frequency increases, the transconductance of transistor and Q-factor of varactor significantly decrease. Thus, high frequency VCO consumes high power for oscillation start-up, displays relatively poor spectral purity and has limited tuning range. A frequency doubler is reported to double the frequency of LO signal for mixing and to halve the oscillation frequency of VCO [16]. However, frequency doubler has high power consumption and requires a buffer amplifier operating at the frequency of $2*f_{LO}$ to drive the mixer, which brings severe power consumption. A lower power-consuming solution is reported to remove the frequency doubler and to utilize a SHM instead of

mixer[17]. SHM can mix the RF signal with $2 * f_{LO}$ signal. The IF frequency (f_{IF}), RF frequency (f_{RF}) and LO frequency (f_{LO}) of SHM satisfy: $f_{IF} = f_{RF} - 2 * f_{LO}$. With relatively low oscillation frequency, the VCO has better phase noise performance, and the LO buffer could provide higher LO power with lower power consumption.

Since one of the research objects is to decrease the power consumption of LO buffer by improving the SHM design. Two aspects are considered for the SHM IC design. The first one is that decreasing the LO power requirement of SHM is effective to decrease the output power and power consumption of LO buffer.

The second one is that making conversion gain of SHM insensitive to LO power could remove the power control circuit of LO buffer and accordingly decrease the power consumption of LO buffer. When injected LO power changes, the transistor requires different bias voltage to flatten the generation of LO second-harmonic ($2 * f_{LO}$) and to flatten the conversion gain.

In summary, SHM should be designed with low LO power requirement and with conversion gain insensitive to LO power. The proposal of SHM include two parts. The first is to propose a novel topology to decrease the LO power requirement of SHM. The second is to propose an adaptive bias circuit to flatten the conversion gain of SHM. When the LO power changes, the proposed bias circuit adaptively changes the bias voltage of LO doubling stage to flatten $2 * f_{LO}$ generation and the conversion gain. Hence, the proposal in Chapter 4 decreases the LO power requirement of SHM and makes the conversion gain of SHM insensitive to LO power, which is expected to decrease the power consumption of LO buffer.

1.3 Organization of this dissertation

The main focus of this dissertation is to decrease the dc power consumption of transceiver by decreasing power consumption of the RF building blocks including PA, VCO and LO buffer ICs. The method to decrease the power consumption of the RF building blocks is proposing adaptive bias circuits to decrease the power consumption of PA and VCO, and to decrease the LO power requirement of SHM.

Considering this focus, this dissertation is structured in five chapters. In Chapter 1, the research background, motivations, and the organization of this dissertation have been briefly introduced.

In the following, adaptive bias circuits are presented to improve the power consumption of RF ICs, including PA IC in Chapter 2, VCO IC in Chapter 3, and SHM IC in Chapter 4, respectively. From Chapter 2 to Chapter 4, the proposals are presented with the review of previous works, process introduction. In the following, the operation principles and circuit design are described in details. Then measured performance and comparison with previous works are shown to confirm the effectiveness of the proposed bias circuits on decreasing power consumption.

At last, conclusions of this dissertation and main areas for future research on the adaptive bias techniques will be given in Chapter 5.

1.4 Conclusion

In this dissertation, adaptive bias techniques are researched to decrease the dc power consumption of RF ICs. Three RF ICs are proposed with adaptive bias circuits to improve the power consumption as:

1. 5-GHz band SiGe HBT PA IC with an adaptive bias circuit.
2. 2.4-GHz band CMOS VCO IC with an amplitude feedback bias circuit.
3. W-band SiGe HBT SHM IC with a bottom-LO-configuration and a tail current bias circuit.

In this chapter, the research background, motivations and organization of this dissertation are presented. The background of this research is firstly introduced in Session 1.1, including the applications of 2.4-GHz 5-GHz 80-GHz bands. Then the motivations of this research are given in Session 1.2, including the roles of PA, VCO, and SHM in the transceiver and the motivations of adaptive bias circuits. Finally, organization of this dissertation is shown in Session 1.3.

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Chapter 2 High Linearity and High Efficiency SiGe HBT PA IC with an Adaptive Bias Circuit

2.1 Introduction

PA plays a particularly important role in transceiver and decides the output power level of the whole transmitter. As mentioned in Chapter 1, PA is the highest power consuming block in the transceiver. Increasing the efficiency of PA can decrease the power consumption of PA with the same output power, which is effective to decrease the power consumption of transceiver. Considering that the supply voltage of PA is limited by the breakdown voltage of the transistor, it is popular to bias the PA with large current for high output power. Thus, the adaptive control of bias current in PA becomes the critical issue.

In this chapter, an adaptive bias circuit is proposed to improve the linearity and efficiency of SiGe HBT power amplifier (PA) IC [1]-[2]. Since the PA is applied for the WLAN 802.11a wireless communications, 64 QAM OFDM modulation with high PAPR (9-10 dB) is utilized in transmissions. Thus, PA should be designed with low gain compression and low phase distortion under high input power to meet EVM specification. The proposed bias circuit provides the PA with low bias current under the low input power to improve the efficiency, and provides the PA with high bias current under the high input power to improve the linearity. Hence, the proposed bias circuit improves the efficiency of PA without degrading the linearity performance. The utilization of adaptive bias circuits has additional features, such as: 1) low additional DC power consumption, 2) little insertion loss, 3) almost no additional chip area.

A three-stage 5-GHz band PA IC with the proposed adaptive bias circuit for WLAN 802.11ac applications is designed, fabricated and fully tested in IBM 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process.

In this chapter, introduction is firstly given in Section 2.1, including the performance parameters of PA, review of previous PA ICs and brief descriptions of 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process. The proposed regulator bias circuit is described in detail in Section 2.2, including working principle analysis and linearity improvement to PA.

Then in Section 2.3, a three-stage linear PA IC with the proposed bias circuit for 5-GHz band WLAN applications is presented with the circuit schematic and simulated

performance. In Section 2.4, measured performance is demonstrated with the comparison of previous works to confirm the effectiveness of the proposal. Finally, conclusions are given in Section 2.5.

2.1.1 Performance parameters of PA

2.1.1-a) Frequency band

The wireless communication standards 802.11a, 802.11n, and 802.11ac amendments all utilize the 5 GHz band ranging from 5.15 GHz to 5.875 GHz, which is a mix of ISM and Unlicensed National Information Infrastructure (U-NII) bands [3]. Since the supply voltage of PA is limited by the breakdown voltage of transistor, high output power of PA is realized by providing PA with high bias current and large output current swing. Thus, the power transistor in PA usually has an exceedingly large size, which results in very low input and output impedance of the power transistor.

The matching network should transform the low impedance to the characteristic impedance (typically $50\ \Omega$). Constant Q lines in Smith Chart could be applied to evaluate the frequency bandwidth of the matching network. The Q of the impedance transformation network is defined as $Q = f_r/\Delta f$ [4], where f_r is the operation frequency and Δf is the frequency bandwidth, respectively.

When Q increases, the matching network has narrower bandwidth and requires less passive devices for the impedance transformation. In addition, the increase of passive devices increases the area and loss of matching network and might decrease the linearity and efficiency of PA. Hence, 3-stage LC broadband output matching network is utilized to satisfy the bandwidth requirement.

2.1.1-b) Linearity

The linearity performance of PA is critical for some vector modulation methods in the wireless communications. In the transmitter, the nonlinearity of PA causes amplitude compression and phase distortion. There are many parameters to evaluate the linearity performance.

The input and output 1 dB compression point (IP1dB and OP1dB) are defined as the input and output signal power when the power gain decreases 1 dB from the small signal gain. Since OP1dB only shows the gain compression of power amplifier, it is not suitable to evaluate the linearity of WLAN PA.

In addition to 1 dB compression point, WLAN uses a primary metric called Error Vector Magnitude (EVM) as a measure of modulation quality and linearity of transmitter. Figure 2-1 illustrates the reference vector and error vector for EVM calculation. In the PA measurement, an error vector is a vector in the I-Q plane between the reference constellation point at the input of PA and the point at the output of PA.

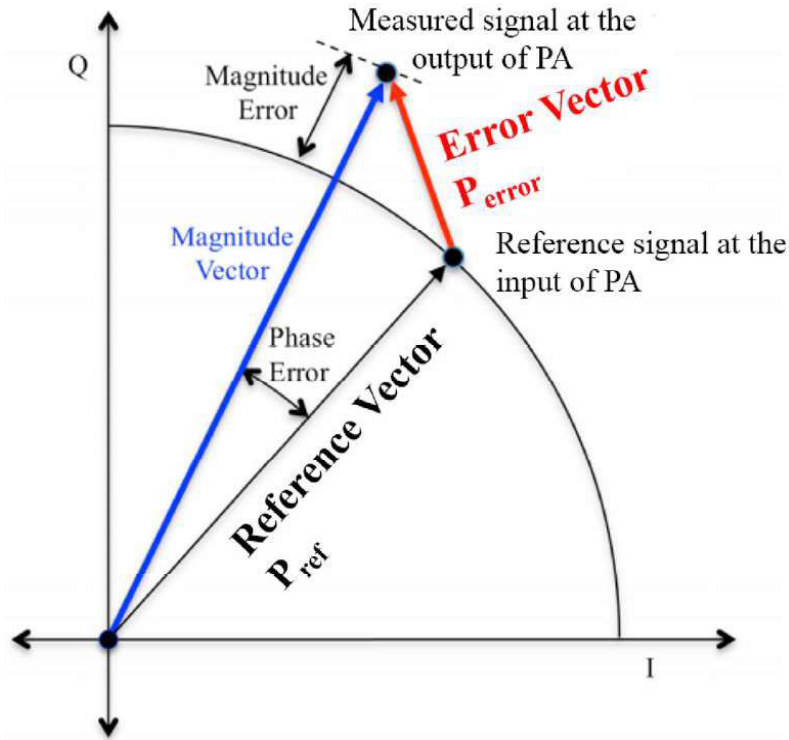


Figure 2-1. The Reference vector and error vector for EVM calculation.

The EVM is defined as the ratio of the power of the error vector (P_{err}) to the power of the reference vector (P_{ref}) as:

$$EVM(\text{dB}) = 10 \times \log\left(\frac{P_{err}}{P_{ref}}\right) \quad (2-1)$$

$$EVM(\%) = \sqrt{\frac{P_{err}}{P_{ref}}} \times 100\% \quad (2-2)$$

Compared to OP1dB, EVM gives a more comprehensive evaluation of the PA linearity performance including gain compression and phase distortion. Table 2-1 shows how the EVM specification varies with bit rate. In Table 2-1, there is a very clear relationship between the modulation quality and the complexity of the modulation scheme.

In this work, OP1dB and EVM performance of the proposed 3-stage PA IC with

the regulator bias circuit will be measured to evaluate the linearity and to confirm whether the PA IC meet the 802.11a WLAN standard.

Table 2-1 EVM limits for OFDM 802.11 a

Modulation Scheme	Code Rate	Data Rate (Mbit/sec)	EVM limit (dB)	EVM limit (%)
BPSK	1/2	6	-5	56.2
BPSK	3/4	9	-8	39.8
QPSK	1/2	12	-10	31.6
QPSK	3/4	18	-13	22.3
16-QAM	1/2	24	-16	15.8
16-QAM	3/4	36	-19	11.2
64-QAM	2/3	48	-22	7.9
64-QAM	3/4	54	-25	5.6

2.1.1-c) Efficiency

Although the standards in wireless communications do not specify the efficiency requirement, efficiency is also an important parameter in PA design. In a low efficiency PA, most dc power consumption from power supply is transformed to the heat in chip instead of the output power. Since PA dominates the DC power consumption in the RF transceiver, the low efficiency PA significantly limits the battery life of mobile terminals. In addition, a decrease of PA efficiency increases the operation temperature of chip and decreases the reliability of the whole RF transceiver. Therefore, PAs should be designed to have high linearity and high efficiency at the same time. Power-added efficiency (PAE) is a metric for rating the efficiency of a power amplifier that takes into account the effect of the gain of the amplifier. In this work, PAE is utilized to evaluate the efficiency performance of PA.

2.1.2 Review of reported PA ICs

Before the review of previously reported the PA ICs, an important distortion phenomenon of Heterojunction Bipolar Transistor (HBT) under high input power is introduced, which is employed to analyze the characteristics of difference bias circuits.

The Figure 2-2(a) shows a simple large signal model of HBT. When the input power increases, the base current (I_B) in the base-emitter diode of the RF HBT is rectified, as shown in Figure 2-2(b). Hence, the dc component of I_B increases and the input resistance of HBT base decreases with input RF power increasing.

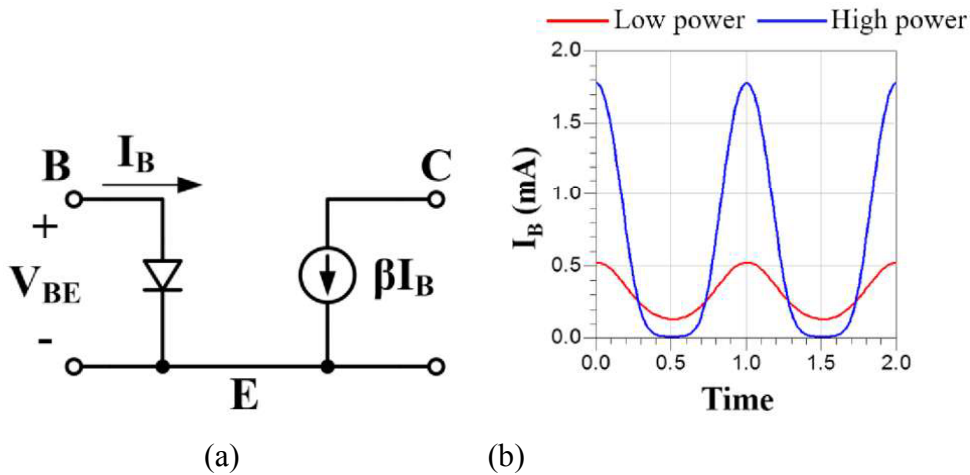


Figure 2-2. (a) Simple large signal model of HBT and (b) time domain waveforms of HBT base current with input power increasing.

The conventional current mirror bias circuit for the HBT PA was widely used ([5]-[9]) and is shown in Figure 2-3. A single-stage PA with current mirror bias circuit is designed and simulated in 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS to show its drawbacks and to compare with other topologies. The HBT is composed of units with emitter finger length of 20 μm , finger width of 0.8 μm and emitter stripes of 3. The RF amplifying HBT Q1 contains 48 units and the bias current mirror HBT Q2 contains 1 unit, respectively. R_{bias} is designed to 625 Ω for an appropriate bias current. For an accurate current copy, the base input resistance of Q1 and Q2 should be inversely proportional to the emitter size. Thus, the base bias resistor of Q1 and Q2 are designed to be $R_{b1}=100 \Omega$ and $R_{b2}=4800 \Omega$, respectively. The output impedance transformation network is designed by load-pull simulation. The input matching network transforms the impedance of RF HBT to the system characteristic impedance (50 Ω). For simplicity, the input and output matching circuit is not shown. The supply voltages for the bias circuit and RF HBT are 3.3 V.

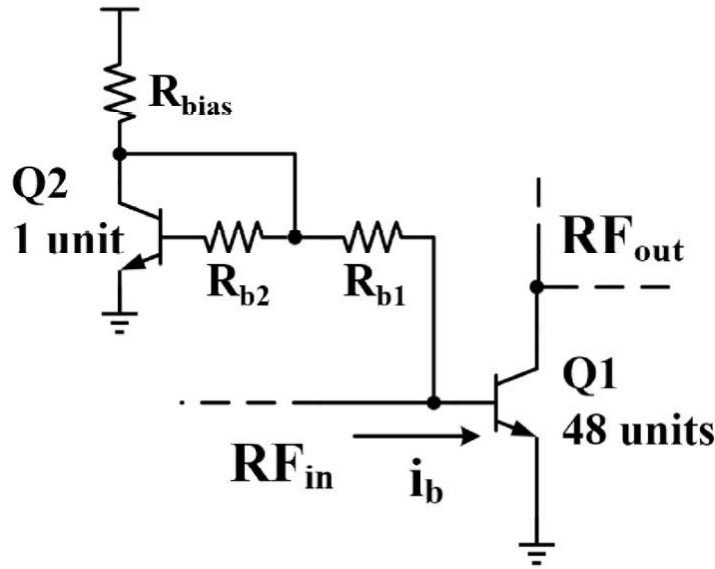


Figure 2-3. Schematic of the conventional current mirror circuit in [5]-[9].

In the PA with conventional current mirror bias circuit in Figure 2-3, when RF power increases, the input resistance of Q1 base and the base-to-emitter voltage (V_{be}) of Q1 decreases. Figure 2-4(a) shows the simulated V_{be} and collector current (I_c) variation with RF power increasing from -20 to 20 dBm. Since the V_{be} decreases with input power increasing, V_{be} is high under the low input power, which causes a high quiescent bias current and low efficiency of PA at small signal. In addition, when P_{in} increases, gain compression is large as a result of V_{be} decreasing as shown in Figure 2-4(b), which may cause the degradation of EVM.

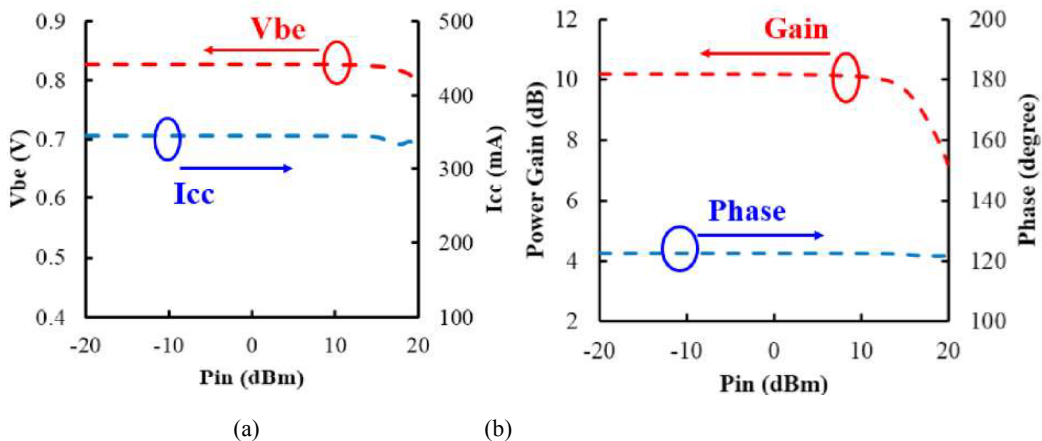


Figure 2-4. Simulated performance of PA with current mirror bias circuit: (a) V_{be} and I_b variation and (b) LSS response with RF power increasing.

A great deal of works were devoted to improve the linearity and efficiency of PAs,

adaptive bias circuits were reported to increase the base current (I_b) of the RF HBT to maintain enough output current swing and to improve linearity as the input power increases.

The adaptive bias circuits using HBT base-collector junction diode as a linearizer was reported in [10] as shown in Figure 2-7(a). The RF amplifying HBT Q1, input and output matching circuits are the same as those in Figure 2-3. The R_{bias} provides a suitable quiescent I_b bias for Q1. The supply voltages for the bias circuit and RF HBT are 1.6 and 3.3 V, respectively.

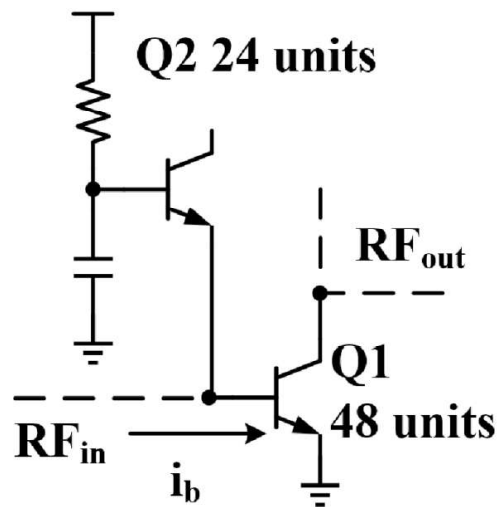


Figure 2-5. Schematic of linearized HBT PA with diode bias circuit as adaptive bias circuit reported in paper [10].

As the input power increases, the current of diode is rectified and the dc voltage across the diode decreases, which increases the I_b bias of Q1. Figure 2-6 shows the simulated (a) RF HBT V_{be} and I_c variation, and (b) LSSP response of PA with RF power increasing from -20 to 20 dBm. Compared to the simulated performance of the current mirror biased PA in Figure 2-4, the diode linearizer provided higher I_c bias and suppressed the gain compression and phase distortion at high RF input power. However, since the driving ability of diode is limited, the diode size was large and the linearizer bias circuit did not provide sufficient bias current and V_{be} of RF amplifying HBT still slightly decreased at high input RF power. In addition, the R_{bias} suppressed the increase of I_c in the RF HBT. Thus, R_{bias} in the bias circuits should not be too high, which limited the flexibility of V_{bias} and resulted in different voltages for bias circuit and power supply.

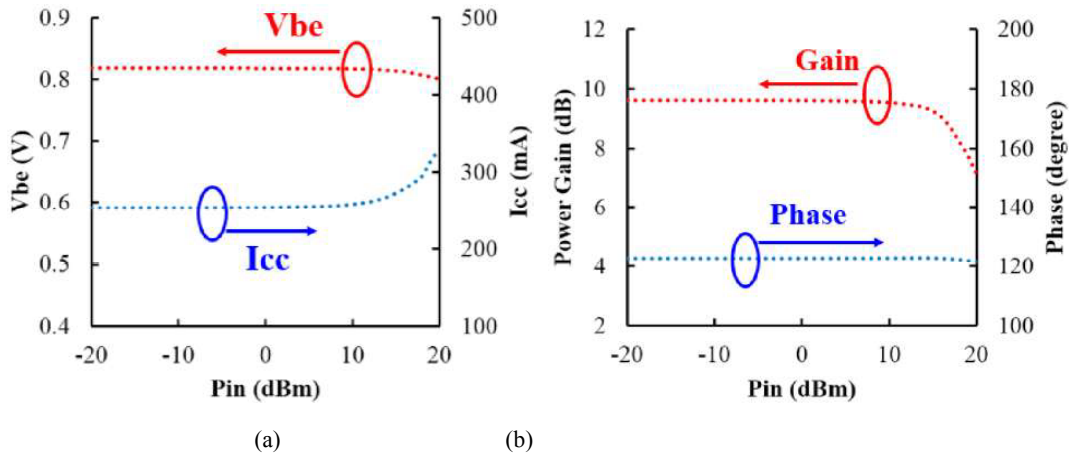
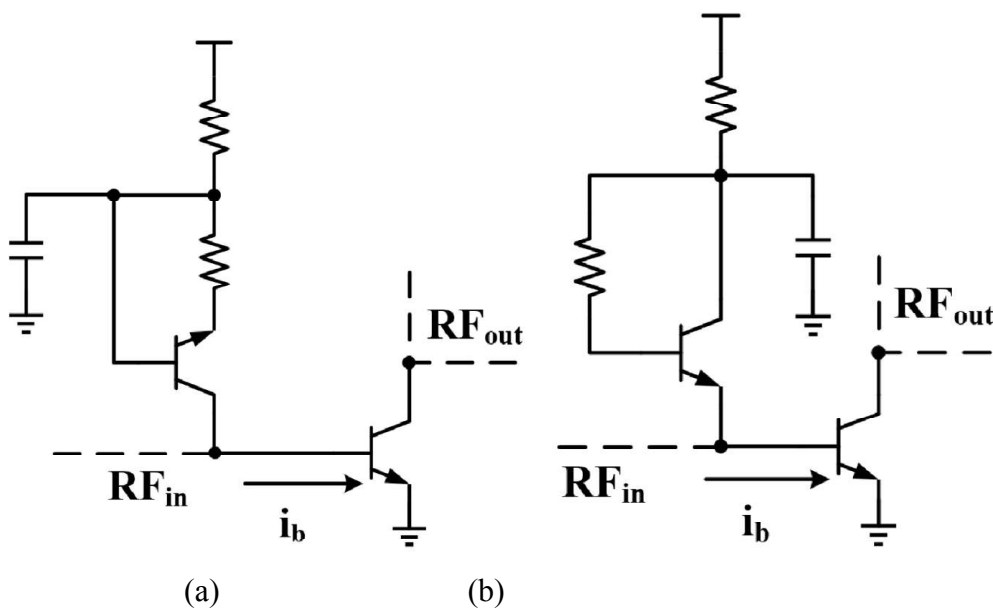


Figure 2-6. Simulated performance of PA with diodelinearizer bias circuit: (a) V_{be} and I_{cc} variation and (b) LSSP response with RF power increasing.

Other adaptive bias circuits using HBT base-collector junction diode as linearizers were reported in [11]-[14] as shown in Figure 2-7(a)-(d). Paper [11] reported base-collector junction diode in the bias circuit to realize linearizer, as shown in Figure 2-7(a). Paper [12] reported base-emitter junction diode in the bias circuit to realize linearizer, as shown in Figure 2-7(b). Paper [13] reported a linearizer including a base-emitter junction diode of an open collector HBT and a feedback MOS in diode connection, as shown in Figure 2-7(c). Paper [14] reported a linearizer applying a base-emitter junction diode, as shown in Figure 2-7(d). The bias circuits in [13] and [14] utilized two series NPN HBT in diode connection to determine the V_{be} bias of the RF amplifying HBT and to decrease the fluctuation of quiescent current over PVT variation.



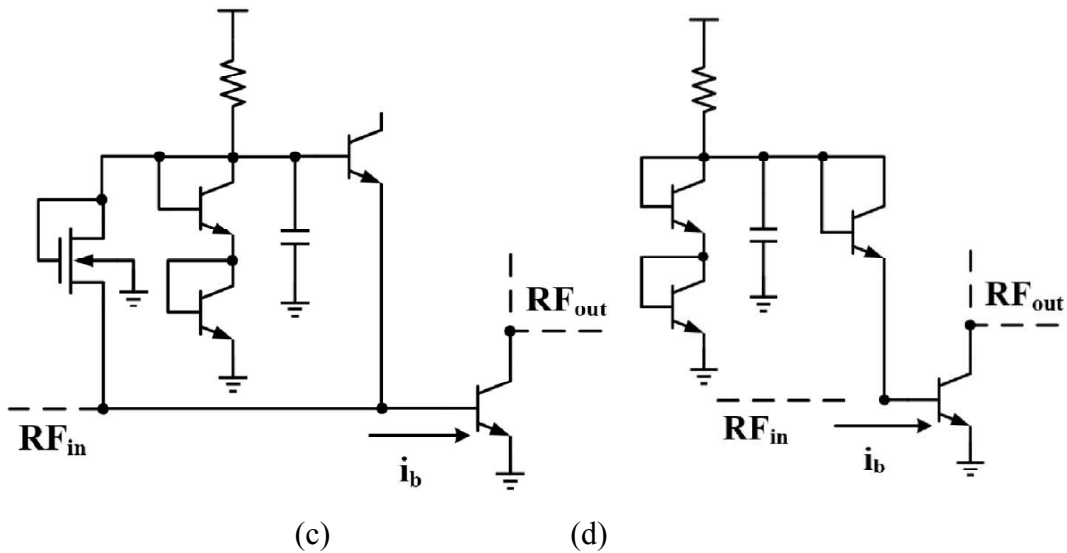


Figure 2-7. Schematic of linearized HBT PA with diode linearizer bias circuit reported in paper (a)[11], (b)[12], (c) [13], and (d)[14].

This paper presents a novel CMOS active bias circuit topology ([1],[2]) with strong DSC and excellent linearity improvement. A common source feedback amplifier is used to control the output voltage of the bias circuit. The novel bias circuit can effectively keep V_{be} of RF HBT constant, increase I_b , and flatten the gain of the PA as the input power increases.

2.1.3 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process

Several types of semiconductor technologies such as Si CMOS, GaAs HBT/HEMT and SiGe HBT have been used to design RF PAs. Although Si CMOS is the most cost-effective process, it has low linearity characteristics. GaAs has high power density and excellent linearity. However, the high cost limits its commercial applications. SiGe BiCMOS process can balance this trade-off with higher performance than Si CMOS and lower cost than GaAs, and SiGe BiCMOS process is fully compatible with the Si CMOS process. Hence, SiGe BiCMOS process is a good candidate to design PAs for WLAN applications. In this work, IBM 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process is utilized to realize the linear PA IC.

Figure 2-8 shows the cross section of the high-speed NPN HBT (Heterojunction Bipolar Transistor) based on the non-self-aligned emitter-base integration in this 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process, where LTE epi is the Low-Temperature Epitaxy[15].

This process provides the high-performance and high-breakdown NPN HBTs by optional selectively implanted collector (SIC) mask [16]. The typical specifications of high-performance and high-breakdown HBTs are shown in Table 2-2, where BV_{ceo} is the collector-emitter breakdown voltage of HBT with base open, f_T and f_{MAX} are the cut-off frequency and maximum oscillation frequency of the NPN HBT, respectively.

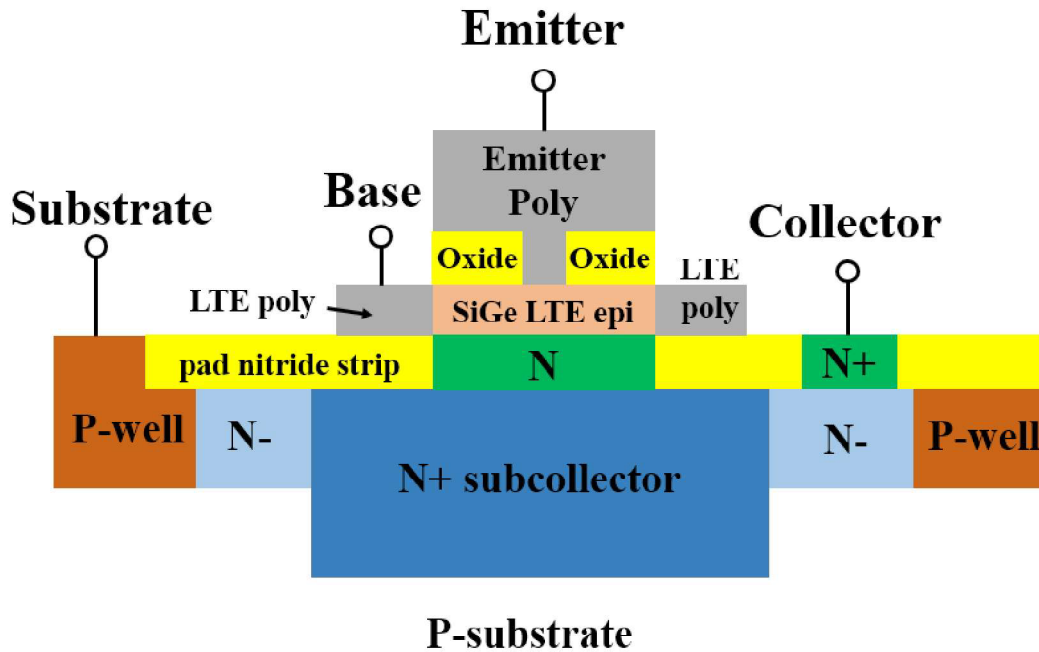


Figure 2-8. The cross section of the IBM NPN HBT in the 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process.

Table 2-2 Typical specifications of the SiGe NPN HBT (25 °C)

	BV_{CEO} (V)	f_t (GHz)	f_{max} (GHz)	β_F	Emitter size (μm^2)
High-breakdown HBT	8.5	27	≈ 90	100	0.8×20

The forward current gain of the common-emitter HBT (β_F) is defined as: $\beta_F = I_c / I_b$. For Indcsimulation, the Forward Gummel Curves with collector short base ($V_{bc} = 0$ V) could be applied to evaluate the quality of the emitter-base junction of HBT and estimate β_F . β_F reaches the highest value and is almost constant in the mid-current region. In the low-current region, the increase of I_b and the drop in β_F are caused by the recombination of carriers at the surface and in the emitter-base space-charge layer, and

the formation of emitter-base surface channels [17]. In the high-current region, the decrease of I_c and the drop in β_F are caused by the saturation, the effect of high-level injection and Kirk effect [5].

With a peak f_T and f_{MAX} of 27 GHz and around 90 GHz, the high-breakdown NPN HBT can well cover full frequency band of IEEE 802.11a standard. Therefore, the high-breakdown HBT with higher BV_{ceo} is applied to implement the PA IC with higher supply voltage and output power.

This process includes 4 metal layers and the thickness of the top layer is around 4 μm to realize high Q-factor inductors. In addition, through silicon via (TSV) technology is employed, which can effectively reduce parasitic resistance and inductance. Especially, the decrease of HBT emitter inductance by employing TSV is expected to improve the power gain of SiGe HBT PA IC. More details of this process are described in [16].

2.2 Operation principle

2.2.1 Adaptive bias circuit with voltage regulation

Figure 2-9 illustrates the simplified schematic diagram of the novel linearizing CMOS bias circuit proposed in this paper. This novel bias circuit works like a regulator. When the input power increases, the novel bias circuit keeps V_{be} constant and sufficiently increases I_b to improve the linearity. For DC analysis of the novel bias circuit, input resistance of RF amplifying HBT is simplified to resistor R_{be} .

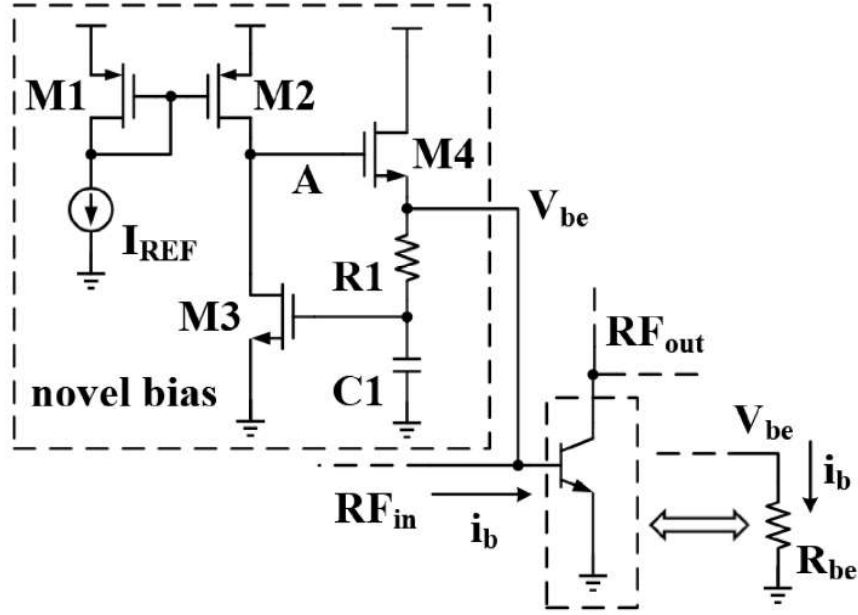


Figure 2-9. Schematic of PA with novel linearizing bias circuit.

Resistor R1 and capacitor C1 form a low pass filter to isolate MOS transistor M3 from the RF input. MOS transistors M1 and M2 and current source I_{REF} form a current mirror to supply the drain current of M3 (I_{D3}).

At first, channel length modulation effect is neglected to estimate output voltage (V_{be}) of the novel bias circuit. The potential of node A (V_A) is floating and has no influence on I_{D3} . I_{D3} is only decided by the gate-to-source voltage of M3 (V_{GS3}), which equals to V_{be} . Therefore, the output voltage of the bias circuit can be expressed as:

$$V_{be} = V_{TH3} + \sqrt{\frac{2I_{REF}W_2L_1L_3}{\mu C_{OX}W_1W_3L_2}} \quad (2-3)$$

where W_1 , W_2 , W_3 and L_1 , L_2 , L_3 are the total gate widths and gate lengths of M1, M2 and M3, respectively. V_{TH3} is the threshold voltage of M3, μ is the carrier mobility, and C_{OX} is the gate oxide capacitance per unit area.

It is noticed that V_{be} is independent on R_{be} , which is the most important feature of the novel bias circuit. To provide a more intuitive explanation, when R_{be} decrease, V_A will increase to increase I_b and to keep V_{be} constant. The gate widths and gate lengths of the transistors and I_{REF} are optimized to supply a sufficient V_{be} bias for the RF HBT. In the equation (2-3), V_{be} is influenced by V_{TH3} . Since the concentration in this paper is the improvement of linearity, an additional compensated circuit might be necessary in the bias circuit to suppress the influence of V_{TH} on V_{be} .

The next step is considering the channel length modulation effect to analyze the DSC of the novel bias circuit and to optimize the device parameters. If V_{GS3} slightly decreases, V_A will significantly increase to decrease I_{D2} and to get a new balance of $I_{D2} = I_{D3}$. Hence, M1, M2, M3 and I_{REF} form an open-loop common source feedback amplifier, and the novel bias circuit can be simplified to the equivalent circuit as shown in Figure 2-10.

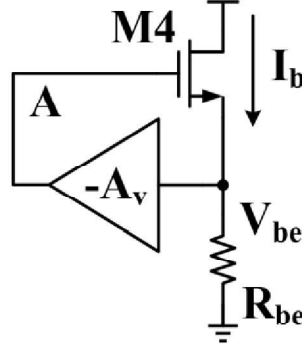


Figure 2-10. Equivalent circuit of the novel bias circuit.

Small signal analysis is applied to calculate how the variation of R_{be} affects V_{be} . It is assumed that R_{be} changes to $R_{be} + \Delta R_{be}$ and V_{be} changes to $V_{be} + \Delta V_{be}$. Since the feedback amplifier has an input voltage variation of ΔV_{be} , the output voltage variation of amplifier at node A is $-A_v \cdot \Delta V_{be}$, where A_v is open-loop gain of the amplifier. The V_{GS} variation of M4 (ΔV_{GS4}) is $-A_v \cdot \Delta V_{be} - \Delta V_{be}$. Thus, the variation of I_b can be expressed by:

$$\Delta I_b = \frac{V_{be} + \Delta V_{be}}{R_{be} + \Delta R_{be}} - \frac{V_{be}}{R_{be}} = g_{m4}(-A_v \cdot \Delta V_{be} - \Delta V_{be}) \quad (2-4)$$

where g_{m4} is the transconductance of M4. Therefore, the derivative of V_{be} with respect to R_{be} is:

$$\frac{\Delta V_{be}}{\Delta R_{be}} = \frac{V_{be}}{R_{be}[1 + g_{m4}R_{be}(A_v + 1)]} \quad (2-5)$$

Considering a typical value of $g_m \approx 10$ mS, $A_v \approx 40$ dB, and $V_{be} \approx 0.8$ V, when $R_{be} > 100 \Omega$, $\Delta V_{be}/R_{be} \ll 1$. It means that ΔV_{be} keeps almost constant when R_{be} changes. From Eq. (4) it is inferred that $\Delta V_{be}/R_{be} > 0$ and $\Delta V_{be}/R_{be}$ increases as R_{be} decreases. Thus, V_{be} slightly decreases with the increase of R_{be} .

DSC of the novel bias circuit can be derived from equation(2-4)as:

$$\frac{\Delta I_b}{\Delta V_{be}} = -g_{m4}(A_v + 1) \quad (2-6)$$

Therefore, g_{m4} and A_v should be designed to a large value to increase the DSC of the bias circuit and to improve the linearity of PA. L_2 and L_3 are increased to suppress the channel length modulation effect. Meanwhile, W_2 and W_3 should be proportionally increased to keep W_2/L_2 and W_3/L_3 constant. Therefore, V_{be} is constant and A_v is increased. Since V_{be} is independent on M4 parameters, gate width of M4 is increased to enhance g_{m4} without influencing V_{be} . Consequently, the device parameter is optimized to: $L_1 = L_2 = L_3 = L_4 = 0.5 \mu\text{m}$, $W_1 = 100 \mu\text{m}$, $W_2 = 10 \mu\text{m}$, $W_3 = 40 \mu\text{m}$, $W_4 = 400 \mu\text{m}$, $R_1 = 5 \text{ k}\Omega$, and $C_1 = 10 \text{ pF}$. Although W_4 is large for the DSC improvement, the area of the transistor with finger structure is insignificant compared with the inductors and capacitors.

Figure 2-11 shows the variations of V_{be} and I_b with R_{be} from the dc simulation. When R_{be} is swept from 20 to 1000 Ω , I_b largely decreases from 39 to 0.8 mA, while V_{be} slightly increases from 0.78 to 0.8 V. The simulation results show good consistency with the theoretical analysis.

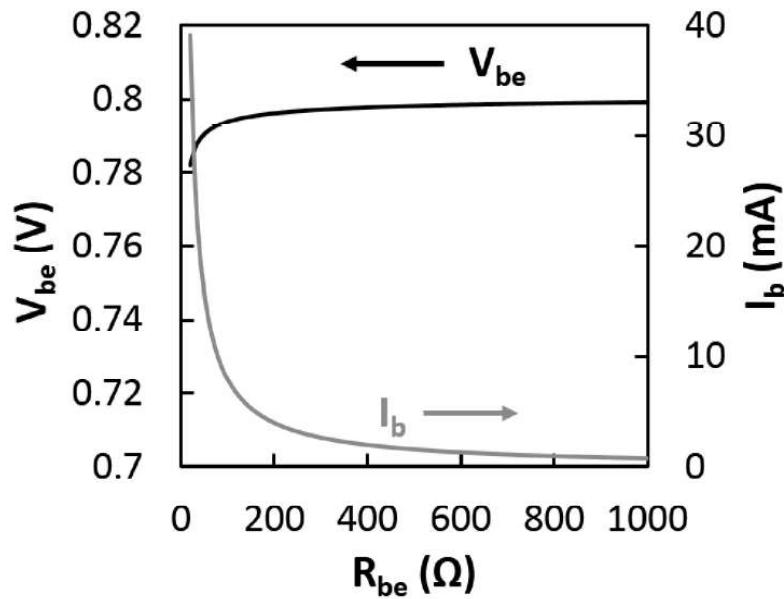


Figure 2-11. Simulated dependence of V_{be} and I_b on input power of the linearized PA (solid lines) and the conventional PA (dashed lines).

The stability of the regulator bias circuit is confirmed from the open-loop gain of the feedback loop. Figure 2-12 shows the schematic to simulate the open-loop gain by ac simulation. An infinitely large ideal inductor as RF choke and an infinitely large ideal capacitor for dc cut are inserted to make the feedback loop open for ac signal

without influencing the dc operations point of the bias circuit and RF HBT.

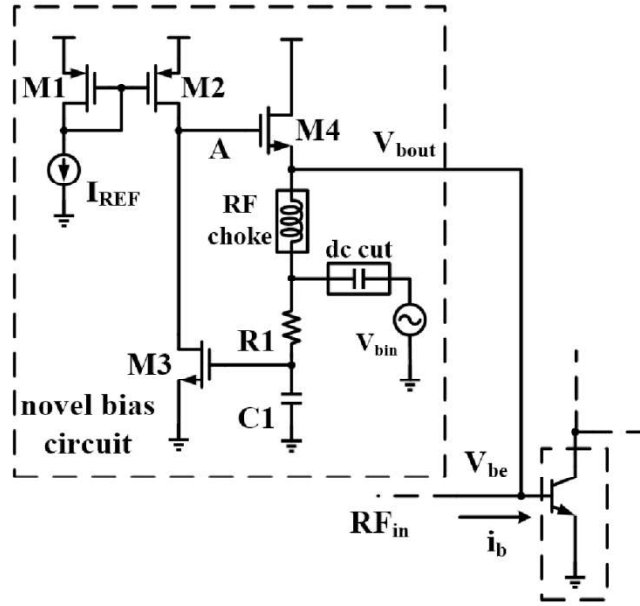


Figure 2-12. Schematic to simulate the open-loop gain of the regulator.

As shown in Figure 2-12, V_{bin} with 1mV amplitude is inserted as the input voltage, V_{bout} is open-loop output voltage of the bias circuit. The open-loop gain of the bias circuit is defined as:

$$Gain = 20 * \log\left(\frac{V_{bout}}{V_{bin}}\right) \quad (2-7)$$

and the open-loop phase shift of the bias circuit is defined as:

$$Phase = Phase(V_{bout}) - Phase(V_{in}) \quad (2-8)$$

Figure 2-13 shows the Bode magnitude plot and Bode phase plot of the regulator bias circuit with V_{bin} frequency swept from 1 kHz to 1 GHz. When the frequency is low, the gain is around 20 dB and the phase shift is 180 degree, which confirms the negative feedback of the loop and voltage regulation of the bias circuit. When frequency increases and the gain decreases to 0 dB, the phase shift is larger than 0 degree, which confirms the stability of the feedback loop.

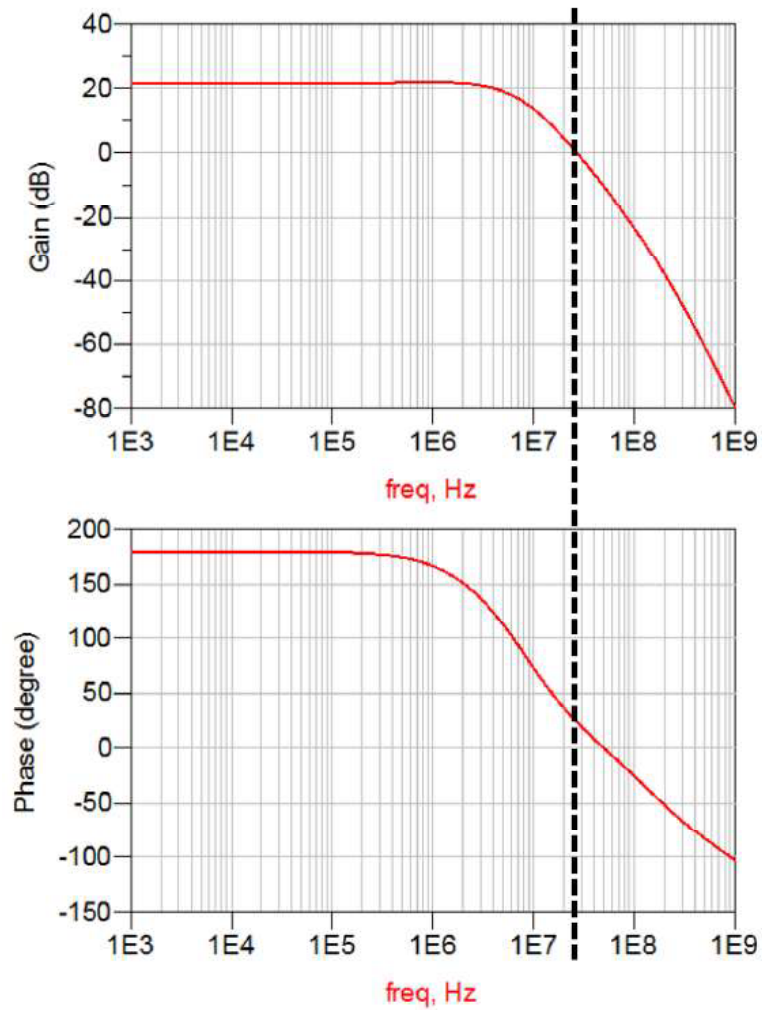


Figure 2-13. Bode plot of the open-loop gain of the regulator.

Harmonic balance simulation is performed to confirm the DC analysis and to compare the linearized PA in Figure 2-9 with the conventional PA in Figure 2-3. Figure 2-14 shows the simulated dependence of V_{be} and I_b on the input power swept from -20 to 20 dBm. In the conventional PA, I_b slightly increases from 1.2 to 1.4 mA and V_{be} significantly decreases from 0.798 to 0.541 V. In the linearized PA, I_b largely increases from 1.2 to 4.1 mA and V_{be} keeps almost constant (V_{be} changes from 0.798 to 0.796 V). Therefore, it is expected that the novel bias circuit is effective in improving the linearity of PA.

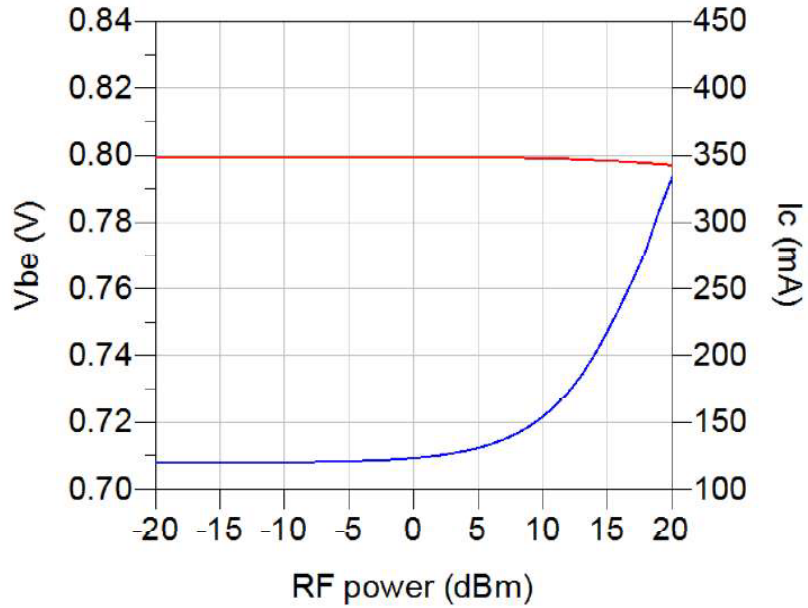


Figure 2-14. Simulated dependence of V_{be} and I_b on input power of the linearized PA (solid lines) and the conventional PA (dashed lines).

2.2.2 Decrease of quiescent current by the adaptive bias circuit

To further explain the principle of the linearity improvement, the novel bias circuit is modeled as an RC shunt circuit as illustrated in Figure 2-15. R_{var} and C_p are the output resistance and capacitance of the bias circuit, respectively.

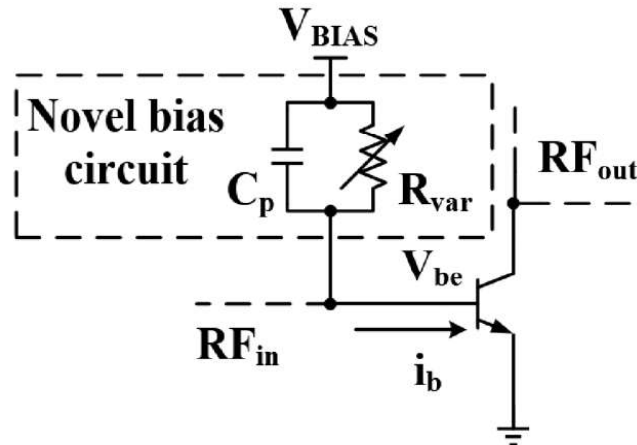


Figure 2-15. Schematic of PA with simplified model of the novel bias.

C_p can be derived from Figure 2-15a as:

$$C_p = C_{DS4} + \frac{C_{GS4}(C_{DS2} + C_{DS3})}{C_{GS4} + C_{DS2} + C_{DS3}} \quad (2-9)$$

where C_{DS2} , C_{DS3} and C_{DS4} are the drain-to-source capacitances of M2, M3 and M4,

respectively, and C_{GS4} is the gate-to-source capacitance of M4. When the input power increases, C_{GS4} is slightly increased while C_{DS2} , C_{DS3} and C_{DS4} are almost constant. Since $C_{DS2} + C_{DS3}$ is smaller than C_{GS4} , the influence of C_{GS4} on C_p is insignificant. As the input power decreases, C_p can be regarded as constant, while R_{var} increases to keep R_{be}/R_{var} constant, ensure a constant V_{be} bias and decreases HBT bias current.

Figure 2-16 shows the simulated input power response of V_{be} and I_{cc} in one-stage PA with current mirror bias circuit in Figure 2-3, with diode bias circuit in Figure 2-5 and with the proposed adaptive bias circuit in Figure 2-9. When RF input power increases from -20 to 20 dBm, novel bias circuit keeps V_{be} bias of HBT constant and sufficiently increases the collect bias current. The quiescent current consumption (I_{cq}) of PA with novel bias circuit is ONLY 35% I_{cq} of CM biased PA and 47% I_{cq} of diode biased PA.

Figure 2-17 shows the simulated LSSP performance of one-stage PA with current mirror bias circuit in Figure 2-3, with diode bias circuit in Figure 2-5 and with the proposed adaptive bias circuit in Figure 2-9. The OP1dB of PA with current mirror, diode and the proposed adaptive bias circuits are 25.4 dBm, 25.6 dBm and 26.3 dBm, respectively. The phase distortion at OP1dB of PA with current mirror, diode and the proposed adaptive bias circuits are 0.7° , 0.4° and 1.2° , respectively. Hence, PA with the proposed bias circuit has similar linearity with much lower quiescent current.

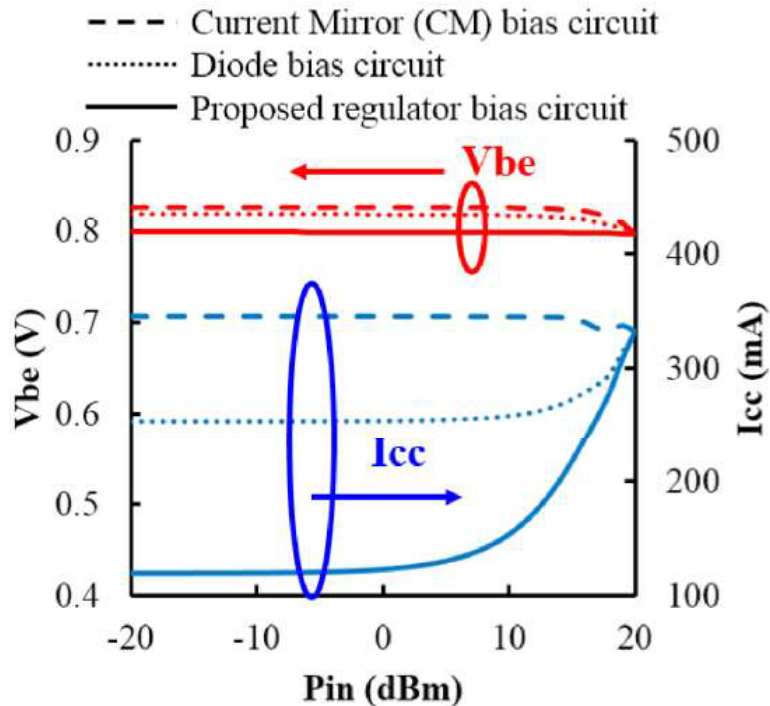


Figure 2-16. Simulated LSSP (S_{21} magnitude and phase response) of the linearized PA (solid

lines) and the conventional PA (dashed lines).

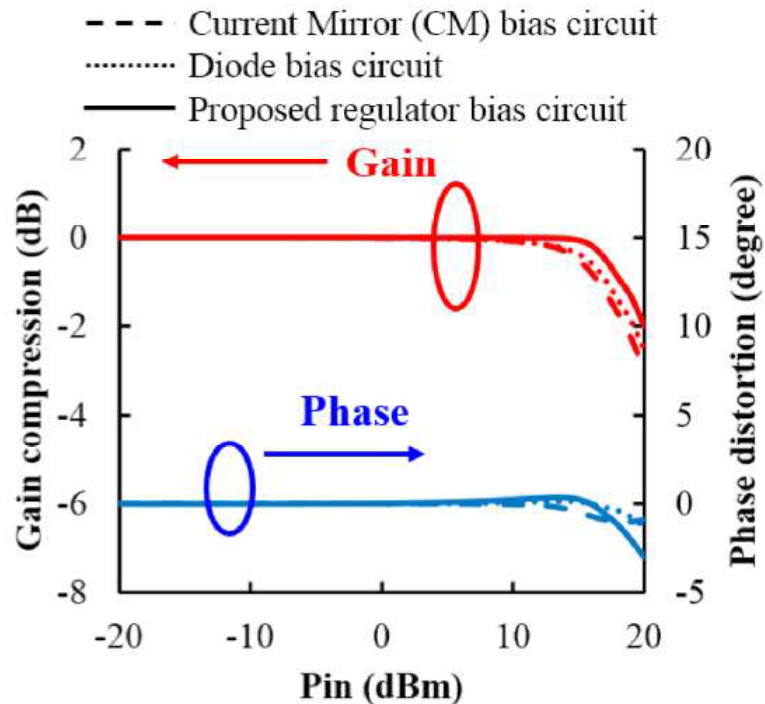


Figure 2-17. Simulated LSSP (S_{21} magnitude and phase response) of the linearized PA (solid lines) and the conventional PA (dashed lines).

2.3 Circuit design

2.3.1 Schematic of 3-stage PA IC

Figure 2-18 illustrates the simplified schematic of a 3-stage PA IC for WLAN applications with the novel bias circuit. Since the breakdown voltage of the HBT is 8.6 V, the supply voltage of RF HBT (V_{cc}) is set to 4.2 V, and the supply voltage of novel bias circuit (V_{ref}) is set to 3 V for the suitable operation of MOS transistors. The PA IC is mounted on the PCB for measurement. The bonding wires (BW1, BW2 and BW3 in Figure 2-18) are inevitable in packaging and are incorporated in the design of matching network.

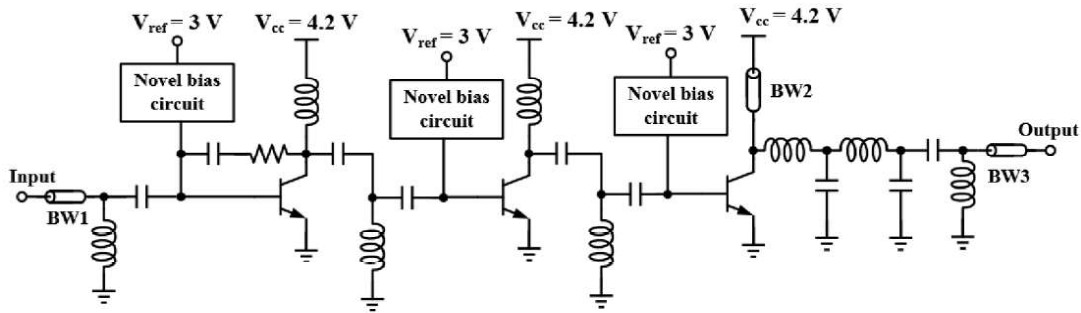


Figure 2-18. Simplified schematic of the 5 GHz-band 3-stage SiGe HBT PA IC with the novel bias circuit.

The RF HBT is composed of units with emitter finger length of $20\ \mu\text{m}$, finger width of $0.8\ \mu\text{m}$ and emitter stripes of 3. Since the first stage and second stage work as the gain-stage amplifiers, a 2-unit HBT is applied for the first stage, and an 8-unit HBT is applied for the second stage. To improve the stability of the PA, a resistive feedback is utilized at the first stage. Since the third stage plays the role of power-stage, a 96-unit HBT is applied. Gain compression may still occur in the gain stages with high input power due to the small emitter size of the RF HBTs. Hence, all the three stages employ the novel bias circuit to improve the linearity.

2.3.2 Simulated performance

Figure 2-19 shows the simulated S-parameters of the 3-stage PA IC. In a frequency band from 4.5 to 5.8 GHz, the input and output return losses are better than 10 dB. The maximum small-signal gain is 30.5 dB at 5.1 GHz with 3 dB bandwidth from 4.6 to 5.9 GHz.

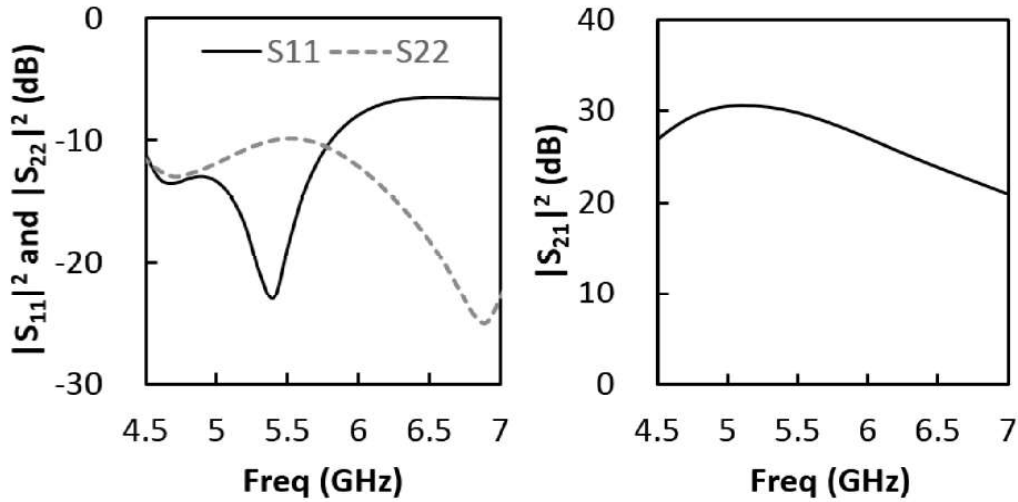


Figure 2-19. Simulated S-parameters of the 3-stage PA IC.

Figure 2-20 shows the simulated dependence of LSSP performance (S_{21} magnitude and phase) on the input power at 5.4 GHz. The simulated input P1dB is -3.2 dBm and the output P1dB is 26.4 dBm with a phase distortion of 4.1 degrees.

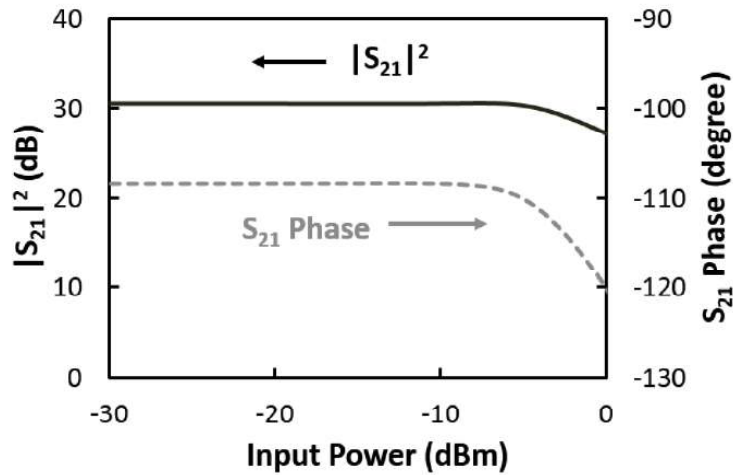


Figure 2-20. Simulated LSSP (S_{21} magnitude and phase) response with the input power.

Figure 2-21 shows the simulated dependence of the output power and Power Added Efficiency (PAE) on the input power under the continuous wave (CW) at 5.4 GHz. As the input power increases from -25 to 0 dBm, the output power increases from 5.1 to 27.5 dBm and the peak PAE is 25.1%.

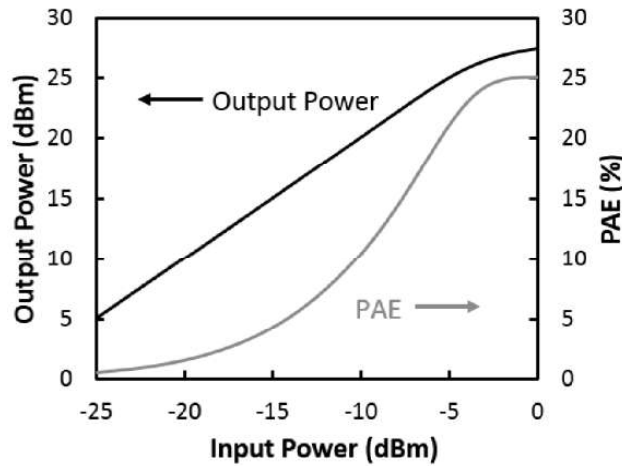


Figure 2-21. Simulated output power and PAE under the continuous wave at 5.4 GHz.

Figure 2-22 shows the simulated dependence of the output power and PAE on the input power under the 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz with a 20 MHz channel bandwidth. Small signal gain is 30.3 dB and the output P1dB is 24.3 dBm with the peak PAE of 22.9 %.

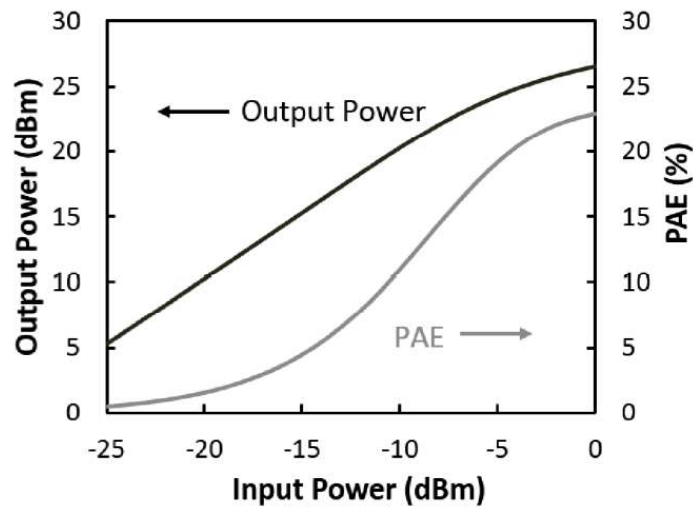


Figure 2-22. Simulated output power and PAE under the 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz.

Figure 2-23 shows the simulated Error Vector Magnitude (EVM) under the 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz with a 20 MHz channel bandwidth. When the output power is lower than 21.2 dBm, the simulated EVM is better than 5%.

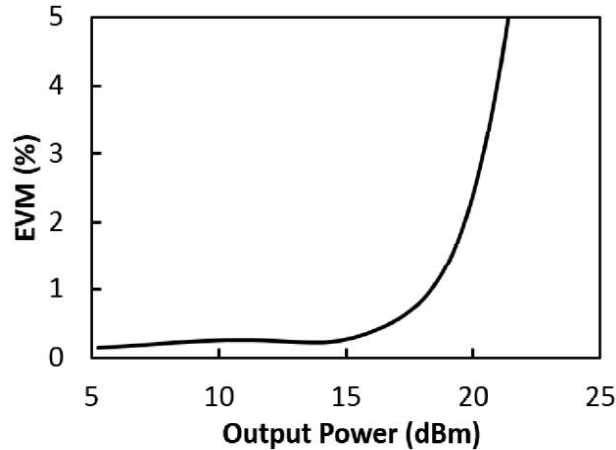


Figure 2-23. Simulated EVM vs. the output power under the 5.4 GHz 54 Mbps OFDM signal.

2.4 Measured performance

Figure 2-24 illustrates the chip photograph of the 3-stage linearized PA IC with the novel bias circuit. The chip is fabricated in IBM 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS process and mounted on a PCB for testing. The chip size is 1.9 mm by 0.95 mm with a thickness of 100 μm .

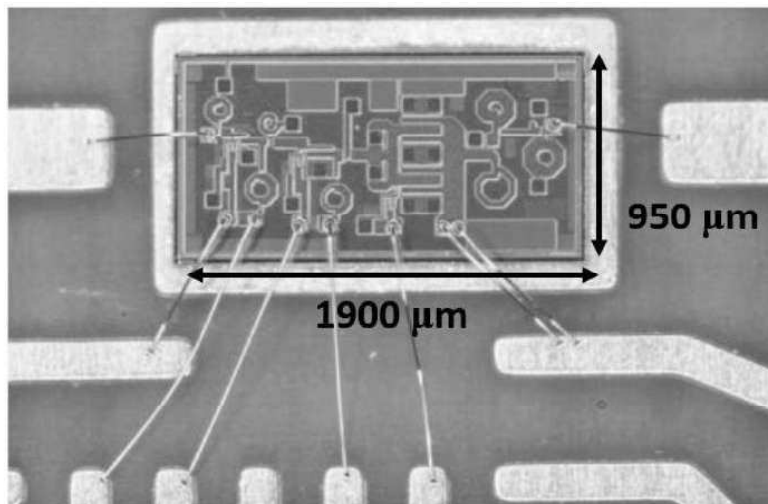


Figure 2-24. Photograph of the fabricated PA IC chip with an evaluation board.

Figure 2-25 depicts the measured S-parameters of the 3-stage PA IC. In a frequency band from 4.9 to 5.9 GHz, the input and output return losses are better than 10 dB. The maximum small-signal gain is 29.2 dB at 5.2 GHz with a 3 dB bandwidth from 4.9 to 6.1 GHz. The measured frequency response of S_{21} is slightly shifted to

higher frequency than the simulated one in Figure 2-19. It is considered that the inductance deviation of the bonding wires affect the impedance matching condition.

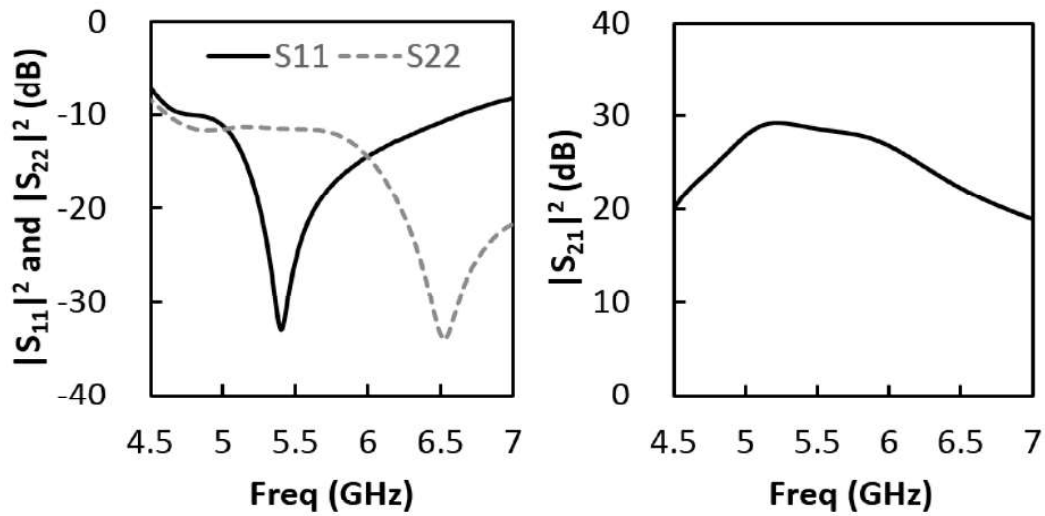


Figure 2-25. Measured S-parameters of the 3-stage PA IC.

Figure 2-26 shows the measured dependence of output power and PAE on the input power under the continuous wave at 5.4 GHz. The supply voltage is 4.2 V and the total quiescent current is 145 mA (9 mA for the first stage, 30 mA for the second stage and 106 mA for the third stage). The 3-stage PA IC exhibits an input P1dB of -0.5 dBm, an output P1dB of 26.7 dBm and a peak PAE of 20.7%. The measured linearity well agrees with the simulated one in Figure 2-21. The measured PAE is slightly lower than the simulated one in Figure 2-21.

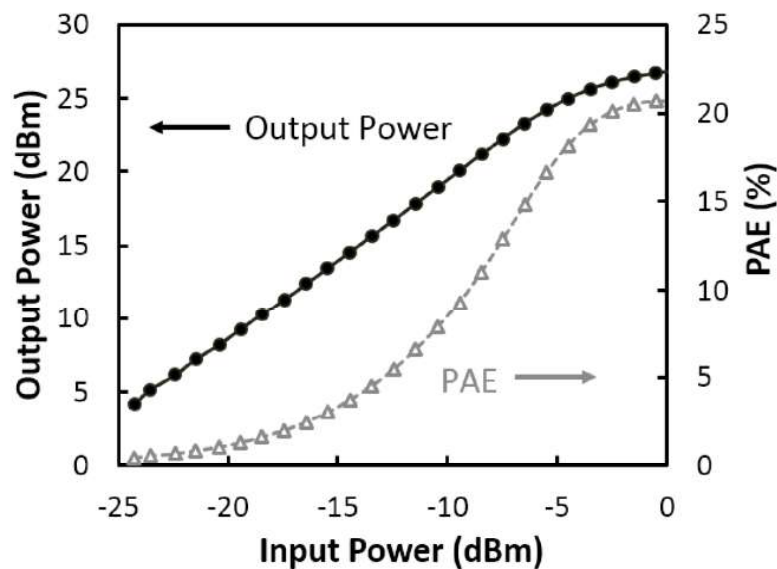


Figure 2-26. Measured output power and PAE under the continuous wave at 5.4 GHz.

Figure 2-27 depicts the measured dependence of the output power and PAE on the input power under the 54 Mbps OFDM signals at 5.4 GHz. Since the dynamic range of the OFDM signal generator for measurement was limited, the maximum input power to the PA IC was -5 dBm, which was lower than the input P1dB of the PA IC.

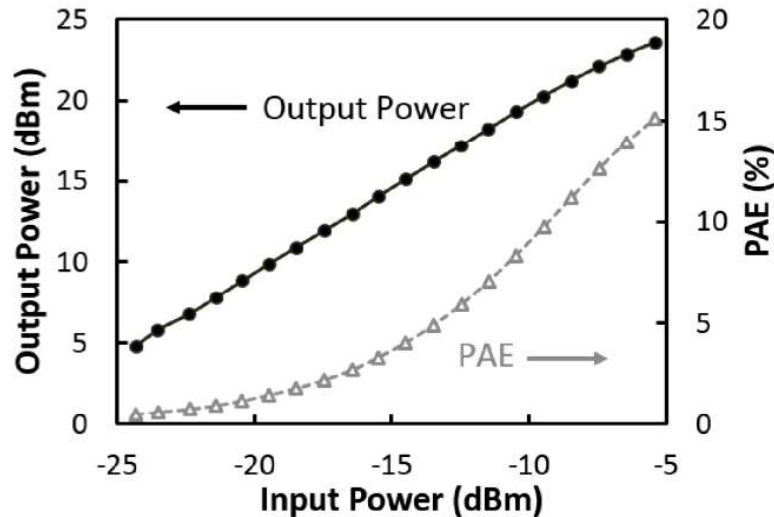


Figure 2-27. Measured output power and PAE under the 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz.

Figure 2-28 shows the measured EVM performance, which gives a comprehensive evaluation of the PA linearity performance including gain compression and phase distortion. The EVM measurement is performed under 54 Mbps OFDM signals at carrier frequencies of 4.9 GHz, 5.4 GHz and 5.9 GHz. The measured EVMs are similar in the frequency range from 4.9 to 5.9 GHz. At 5.4 GHz, the PAIC exhibits a measured EVM of 0.9% (-40.9 dB) at an output power of 17 dBm, and that of 4.2% (-27.5 dB) at 20.3 dBm. The measured performances under 54 Mbps OFDM signals well agree with the simulated results as shown in Figure 2-22 and Figure 2-23, and will meet the 802.11a WLAN standard.

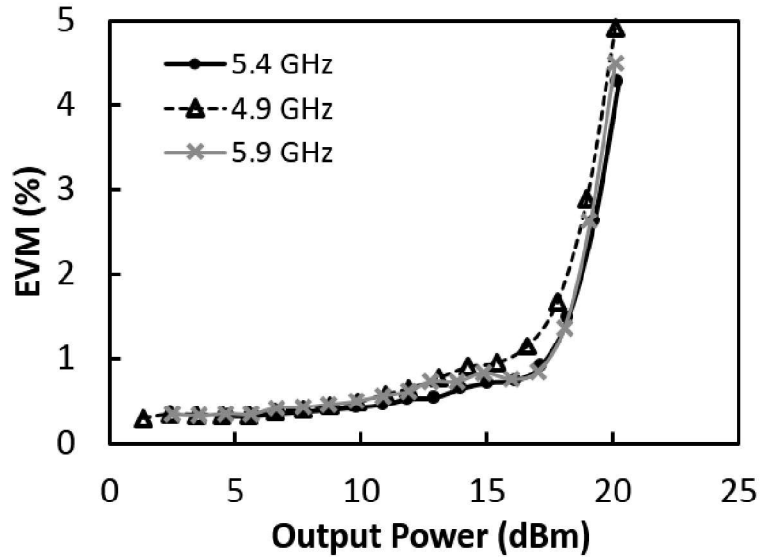


Figure 2-28. Measured EVM vs. the input power under the 5.4 GHz 54 Mbps OFDM signal.

Table I summarizes the measured performance of the linearized PA IC with previous works. Compared with the previous works [9] and [10] with similar frequency band and the same SiGe process, this work achieves higher output power and better PAE with similar EVM.

Table 2-3 Summary of the Measured Performance of the PA IC with Previous Work

	Process	Freq (GHz)	Gain (dB)	CW OP1dB (dBm)	Modulation	Pout (dBm)	PAE (%)	EVM (%)
[9]	350-nmSiGe BiCMOS	5.3	31	N. A.	64-QAM 54 Mbps	16	7.8	3
[10]	350-nm SiGe BiCMOS	5	21.9	27.0	64-QAM 54 Mbps	16	6.0	2.7*
[18]	180-nmSiGe BiCMOS	5.9	27	N.A.	64-QAM 54 Mbps	11 18.3	3.5 15	3.2 5.6
This work	350-nmSiGe BiCMOS	5.4	29	26.7	64-QAM 54 Mbps	19.3 20.3	8.3 9.7	2.6 4.2

* The measured EVM without feedforward error amplifier is used for comparison

2.5 Conclusion

A 5-GHz band SiGe PA IC has been demonstrated with a novel linearizing CMOS bias circuit for WLAN application. With the utilization of an open loop common source feedback amplifier, the novel bias circuit works like a regulator with excellent DC sourcing capability. As the input power increases, the novel bias circuit well keeps the

V_{be} of RF HBT constant and largely increases the I_b for sufficient output current swing. The novel bias circuit can effectively improve linearity performance of the PA IC.

Under 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz, the PA IC has achieved a measured EVM of 0.9% with 284 mA DC current consumption at 17 dBm output power, and an EVM of 4.2% with 330mA DC current consumption at 20.3 dBm output power. The measured linearity performance well satisfies the requirements of IEEE 802.11a WLAN standards.

The measured performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed adaptive bias on improving the efficiency and linearity of PA. With higher efficiency, PA has lower power consumption with the same output power. Since PA is the most power consuming block in transceiver, it is expected that the proposed topology could decrease the total power consumption of transceiver IC.

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Chapter 3 Low Voltage and Low Power CMOS VCO IC with an Amplitude Feedback Bias Circuit

3.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, a high efficiency and high linearity PA IC with adaptive bias circuit for WLAN 802.11a applications has been demonstrated in 350-nm SiGeBiCMOS process.

In this chapter, a low voltage and low power VCO IC is designed for 2.4-GHz applications [1]-[2]. As mentioned in Chapter 1, the 2.4-GHz band VCO IC is quite suitable for the application of IoT devices. Thus, decreasing the power supply of VCO could make it supplied with solar-cell battery or energy harvesting system, which is an attractive solution for large distribution of IoT devices. Decreasing the power supply could also decrease the power consumption of VCO.

In addition to low voltage operation, low power operation is also important for the VCO design to increase the battery-life of IoT devices. Since the LC-VCO requires high bias voltage for oscillation start-up and a low bias voltage to maintain the low power oscillation, an amplitude feedback bias circuit is proposed for the VCO IC design. The amplitude feedback bias circuit is formed by a detector, a comparator, dc level shifters and buffer amplifiers. At the initial state, the proposed bias circuit provides the LC-VCO with high bias voltage for robust oscillation start-up. After the detector detects the oscillation, the proposed bias circuit adaptively decreases the bias voltage of LC-VCO to shift the oscillation into steady low power state. The circuit topologies of LC-VCO and amplitude feedback bias circuits are improved for ultra-low-voltage operation.

A low voltage and low power VCO IC with the proposed adaptive bias circuit for 2-GHz band applications is designed, fabricated and fully tested in 65-nm CMOS process.

In this chapter, introduction is firstly given in Section 3.1, including the performance parameters of VCO, review of previous VCO ICs and brief descriptions of 65-nm CMOS process. The proposed regulator bias circuit is described in detail in Section 2.2, including working principle analysis and linearity improvement to PA. Then in Section 2.3, a three-stage linear PA IC with the proposed bias circuit for 5-GHz band WLAN applications is presented with the circuit schematic and simulated

performance. In Section 2.4, measured performance is demonstrated with the comparison of previous works to confirm the effectiveness of the proposal. Finally, conclusions are given in Section 2.5.

3.1.1 Performance parameters of VCO

3.1.1-a) Phase noise

In an ideal oscillator, the oscillation frequency is constant with time variation and the carrier power in the frequency spectrum is a single impulse, as shown in Figure 3-1 (a), where the f_o refers to the oscillation frequency. In the actual case, the oscillation frequency is modulated by the noise in the elements and varies randomly. Thus the carrier power in the frequency spectrum is broadened, as shown in Figure 3-1(b). Phase noise is utilized to evaluate the “purity” of the output signal of the oscillator. Phase noise is characterized [3], as:

$$L(\Delta f) = \frac{P_n(\Delta f)}{P_{osc}} \quad (3-1)$$

where $P_n(\Delta f)$ is the spectral power in a 1 Hz bandwidth at the offset frequency (Δf) from the center frequency (f_o), and P_{osc} is the carrier power, which could be viewed as the peak of the spectrum, as shown in Figure 3-1(b).

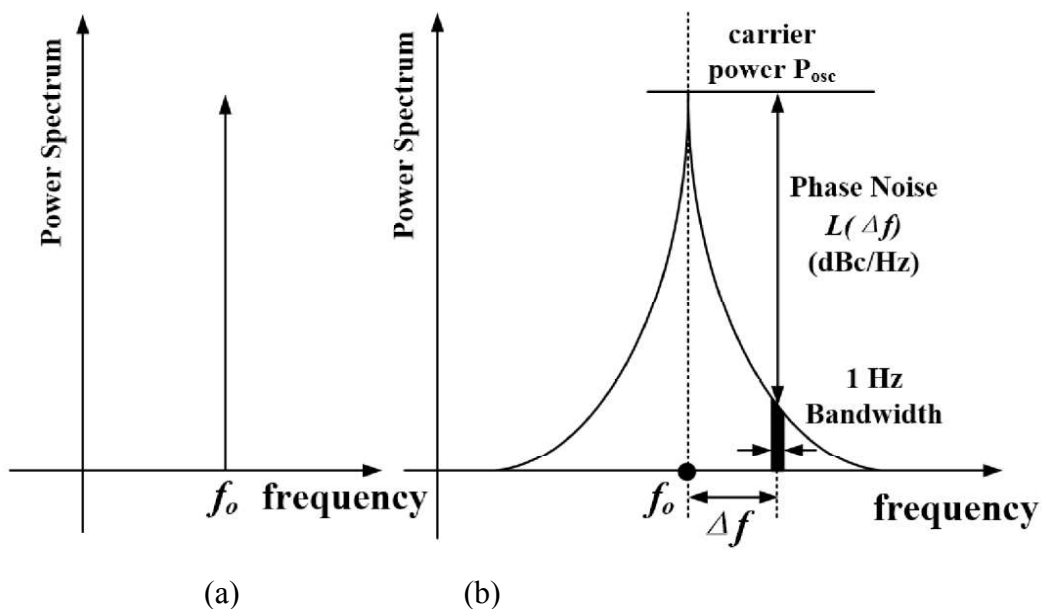


Figure 3-1. Carrier power spectrum of the (a) ideal and (b) noisy oscillator.

For simplicity, the noise in the resistor and the transconductance stage are linearly modeled as white thermal noise currents in the parallel connection, as shown in the

Figure 3-2.

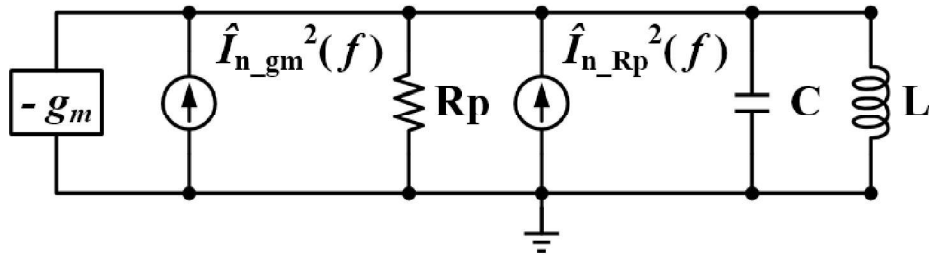


Figure 3-2. Linear noise model of an oscillator.

The noise density is given by:

$$\hat{I}_{n_gm}^2(\omega) = \frac{4kT}{R_p} \quad (3-2)$$

$$\hat{I}_{n_Rp}^2(\omega) = 4kTg_m\gamma \quad (3-3)$$

where \hat{I}_{n_gm} and \hat{I}_{n_Rp} are the noise currents in the resistor and the transconductance stage, respectively. γ is the noise figure of the transconductance stage. k is the Boltzmann constant with the values of 8.62×10^{-5} eV/K. T is the thermodynamic temperature with the unit of Kelvin.

The noise voltage of the oscillator at the frequency of $\omega + \Delta\omega$ is calculated as:

$$\hat{V}_n^2(\omega) = \left[\hat{I}_{n_gm}^2(\omega) + \hat{I}_{n_Rp}^2(\omega) \right] \times |Z(\omega_o + \Delta\omega)|^2 = kTR_p(1 + \gamma) \left(\frac{\omega_o}{Q\Delta\omega} \right)^2 \quad (3-4)$$

where $Z(\omega_o + \Delta\omega)$ is the impedance at the offset frequency ($\Delta\omega = 2\pi\Delta f$) from the center oscillation frequency ($\omega_o = 2\pi f_o$).

The phase noise in (3-1) can be expressed as:

$$L(\Delta f) = \frac{\hat{V}_n^2(\omega)}{V_{osc}^2(\omega)} = \frac{\hat{V}_n^2(\omega)}{2R_p P_{osc}} = \frac{2kT(1+\gamma)}{P_{osc}} \left(\frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta\omega} \right)^2 \quad (3-5)$$

This is the famous Leeson's equation [4]. Figure 3-3 shows the typical independence of phase noise on the offset frequency with three region. In the ω^{-3} region from ω_{osc} to ω_1 , phase noise is proportional to the ω^{-3} , which shows a slope of 9 dB per octave. The flicker noise of the transistor (1/f noise) at low frequency is mixed with the oscillation signal and up-converted to the frequency near ω_{osc} , and caused the phase noise in this region. In the ω^{-2} region from ω_1 to ω_2 , phase noise is proportional to the ω^{-2} , which shows a slope of 6 dB per octave and is explained by Equation (3-5). As $\omega > \omega_2$, phase noise is flat and has no relationship with Δf , which is caused by the noise of buffer amplifier and noise floor of the measurement equipment. .

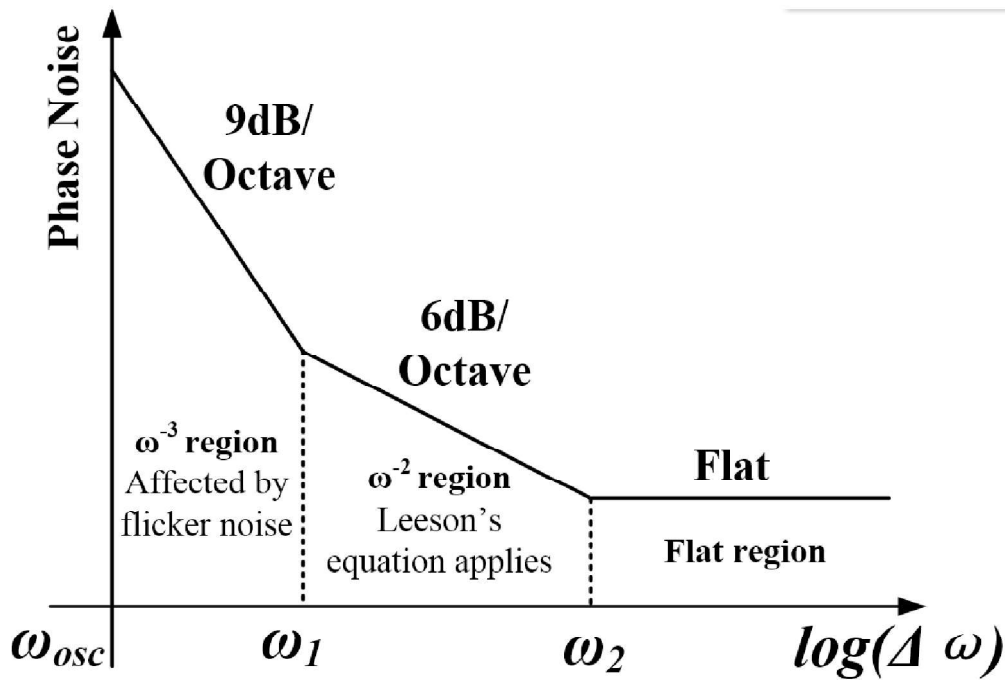


Figure 3-3. Typical phase noise in an oscillator vs. offset frequency.

Considering all these influence factors, Leeson improved the equation (3-5) to:

$$L(\Delta f) = 10 * \log\left(\frac{2FkT}{P_{osc}}\right) + 10 * \log\left[1 + \left(\frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta\omega}\right)^2\right] + 10 * \log\left(1 + \frac{\omega_1}{\Delta\omega}\right) \quad (3-6)$$

where F represents the noise from the transconductance stage in the ω^{-2} region, which is obtained by measurement. The number “1” in the polynomial $1 + \left(\frac{\omega_o}{2Q\Delta\omega}\right)^2$ refers to the floor noise in the buffer amplifier or measurement equipment. The polynomial $1 + \frac{\omega_1}{\Delta\omega}$ refers to the phase noise in the ω^{-3} region.

In Leeson's theory, ω_1 is the corner frequency of the flicker noise of transistor, and $\omega_2 = \omega_{osc}/2Q$, respectively. Actually, ω_1 and ω_2 are not always satisfy this relationship. However, Leeson's model gives us plenty of guidelines to minimize the phase noise [5] such as: filtering the noise from the DC power and bias voltage, increasing the Q-factor of varactor and inductor, decreasing the flicker noise in the active elements (applying dc-offset cancelling technique, for instance), decreasing the noise figure of buffer amplifier and increase the carrier power at the output of the resonant tank.

3.1.1-b) Frequency tuning

The gain or of VCO (K_{vco}) are frequency tuning range (FTR) applied to describe the frequency tuning performance of VCO. K_{vco} is defined as:

$$K_{VCO} = \frac{\partial \omega_o}{\partial V_{ctrl}} \quad (3-7)$$

where V_{ctrl} is the control voltage of the varactor. FTR is defined as:

$$FTR = \frac{\omega_{o,max} - \omega_{o,min}}{V_{dd}} = \int_0^{V_{dd}} K_{VCO} \times \partial V_{ctrl} \quad (3-8)$$

where $\omega_{o,max}$ and $\omega_{o,min}$ are the maximum and minimum oscillation frequencies, respectively, when V_{ctrl} changes from 0 V to V_{dd} .

For simplicity, the parasitic capacitance of the transconductance stage is ignored and K_{VCO} can be calculated as:

$$K_{VCO} = \frac{\partial \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}} \right)}{\partial V_{ctrl}} = \frac{-1}{2C\sqrt{LC}} \times \frac{\partial C}{\partial V_{ctrl}} = -\frac{\omega_o}{2} \times \frac{\partial(\ln C)}{\partial V_{ctrl}} \quad (3-9)$$

When the oscillation frequency is fixed, K_{VCO} depends on the derivative of $\ln C$ with respect to V_{ctrl} . Figure 3-4 shows a typical dependence of AMOS varactor capacitance in (a) linear scale and (b) log scale on the V_{gs} bias with different varactor size. The slope of capacitance in log scale at the same V_{gs} bias voltage is independent to the varactor size, as shown in Figure 3-4(b). Hence, when the oscillation frequency is determined, simply changing varactor size does not influence the K_{VCO} and FTR.

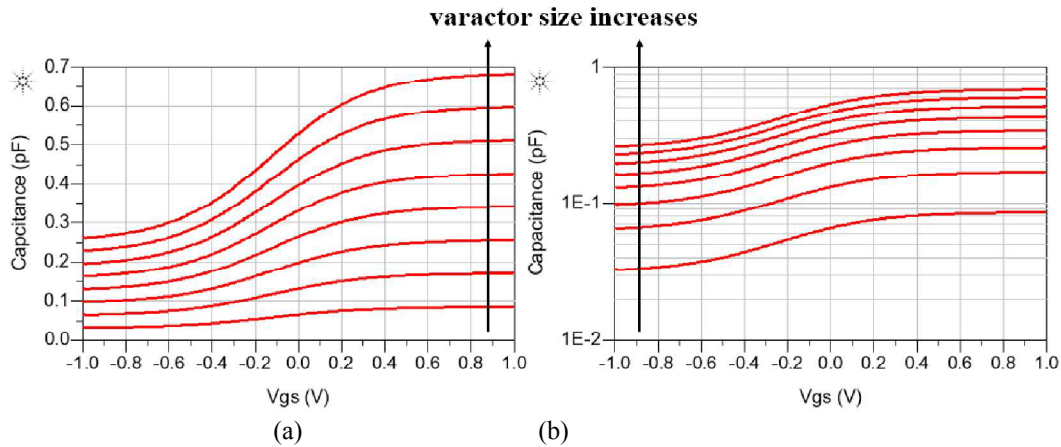


Figure 3-4. The AMOS varactor capacitance in (a) linear scale and (b) log scale vs. V_{gs} bias with different varactor size.

In this work, a 2.4-GHz band VCO IC is designed. Generally speaking, the Q-factor of the varactor is much higher than the inductor at this frequency band. When designing the LC resonant circuit, the size of inductor should be firstly optimized for the highest Q-factor, and then chose the appropriate varactor size for the specific oscillation frequency. According to Leeson's equation, optimizing the Q-factor of the LC resonant circuit improves the phase noise without influencing the K_{VCO} and FTR of the VCO.

3.1.2 Review of reported VCO ICs

Several topologies were reported to decrease the power consumption of VCOs such as Class-C VCOs [6]-[8] and low voltage VCOs [9]-[11].

3.1.2-a) the firstly reported Class-C VCO IC

Class-C VCO ICs were introduced, theoretical analyzed and verified to have a phase noise than the conventional cross-coupled LC-VCO with the same power consumption in [6]. Figure 3-5 shows the circuit schematic of the RC-biased Class-C VCO ICs reported in [6]. After oscillation, the phase noise of VCO could be improved by appropriately decreasing the bias voltage of cross-coupled transistors (V_{bias}). However, these reported VCO ICs have constant V_{gbias} and suffer from the problem of oscillation start-up. In the measurement, the circuits should be initially biased at Class-AB with high V_{bias} for oscillation start-up, and then V_{bias} was manually decreased for Class-C oscillation. Hence, automatic V_{gbias} control circuit is required for Class-C VCO IC implementation in the transceiver IC as a product.

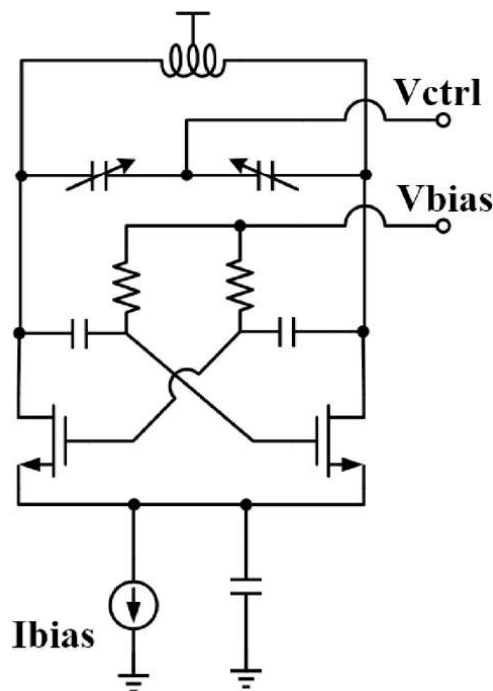


Figure 3-5. Schematic of the RC-biased Class-C VCO IC reported in [6].

3.1.2-b) thereported Class-C VCO ICs with adaptive bias circuits

Hence, Class-C VCO ICs with adaptive bias circuits are reported in [7]-[8]. The paper [7] uses the feedback loop composed of an amplitude detector, a hysteresis comparator, a low pass filter and digital Finite State Machine (FSM) bias control circuit, which detects the output magnitude of the VCO and switches the bias voltage automatically from the voltage for start-up to the operating voltage for optimal performance, as shown in Figure 3-6. The advantages of digital control bias circuit are reconfiguration and a stable voltage control for all operation conditions. However, the digital control circuit has significant circuit complexity, which increases the designing time, chip size and power consumption of the VCO IC. The switching current bias (I_{bias}) serves as a Digital-to-Analog Convertor (DAC) and the Least Significant Bit (LSB) of I_{bias} should be high to ensure the tuning resolution, which furthermore increases the circuit complexity and power consumption. In addition, the digital control circuit has a long settling time from the initial oscillation start-up to the steady Class-C state and limits the application in the PLL or transceiver.

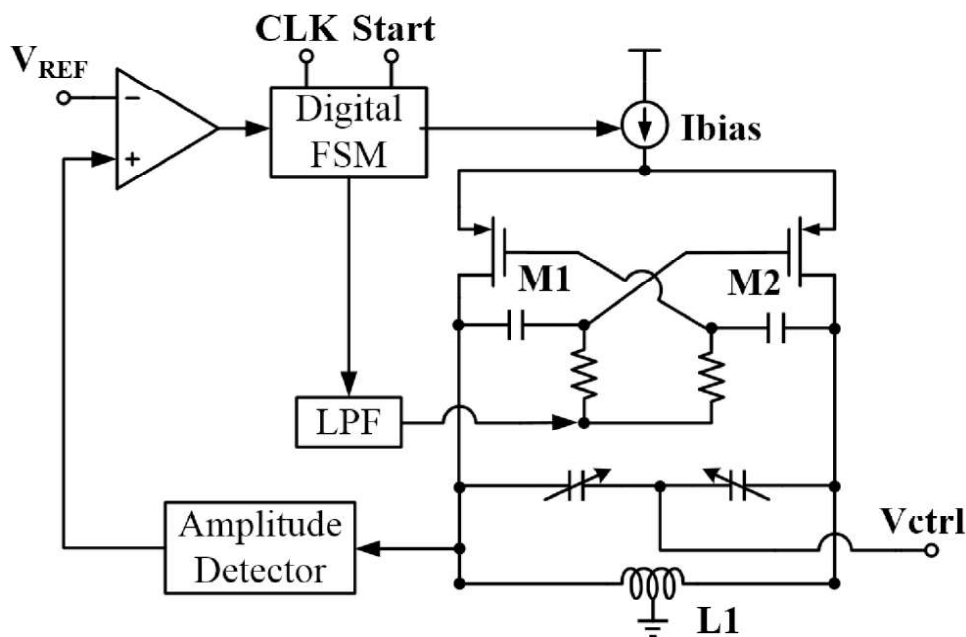


Figure 3-6. Schematic of the Class-C VCO IC applying digital dynamic bias circuit in [7].

The paper [8] uses an LC-VCO with a tail capacitor and with a tail current source, as shown in Figure 3-7. The voltage at the common source of the cross-coupled transistors V_{CM} is raised as a result of the rectifying action of the tail capacitor. Thus, the

feedback loop in paper [8] sensed the V_{CM} and decreases the gate to source bias of the cross-coupled transistors to realize Class-C oscillation, which prevented the amplitude detector from loading the LC resonant tank. Since the tail current source (or tail resistor) in the LC-VCO was required in the bias circuit, this reported VCO IC was not suitable for ultra-low voltage applications.

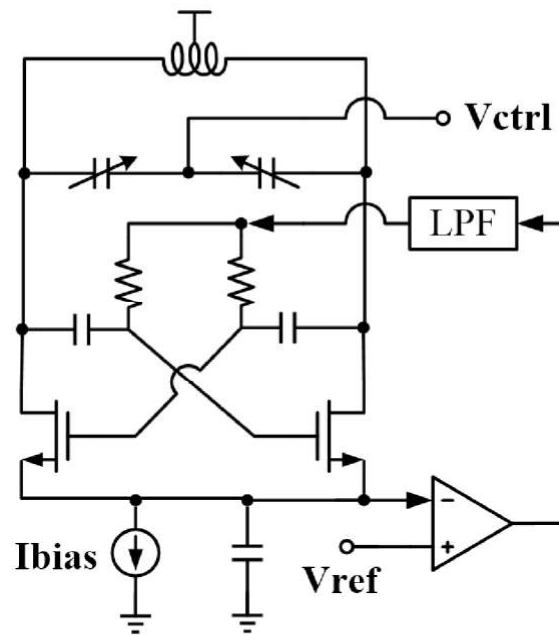


Figure 3-7. Schematic of the Class-C VCO IC applying analog amplitude feedback dynamic bias circuit in [8].

3.1.2-c) the reported low voltage VCO ICs

The papers [9]-[11] reported low voltage VCO ICs. However, these topologies are lack of bias voltage control circuits. In these topologies, if the supply voltage is near (or lower than) the V_{TH} of transistor, the VCO ICs may suffer from the critical issue of oscillation start-up. However, if the supply voltage is much higher than V_{TH} of transistor for robust oscillator start-up, the bias voltage is high for steady state and cause a high power consumption of VCO.

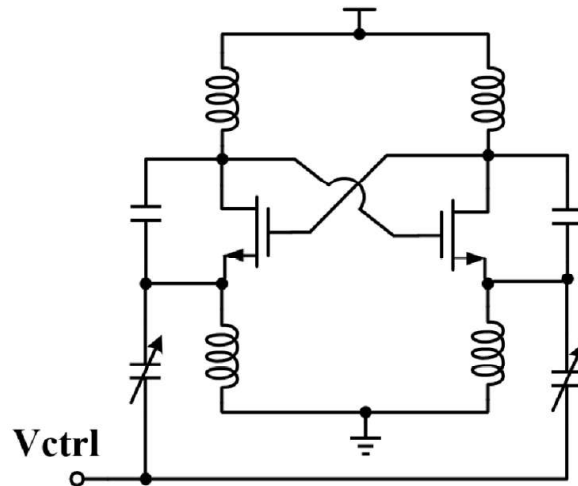


Figure 3-8. Schematic of the Class-C VCO IC applying analog amplitude feedback dynamic bias circuit in [9].

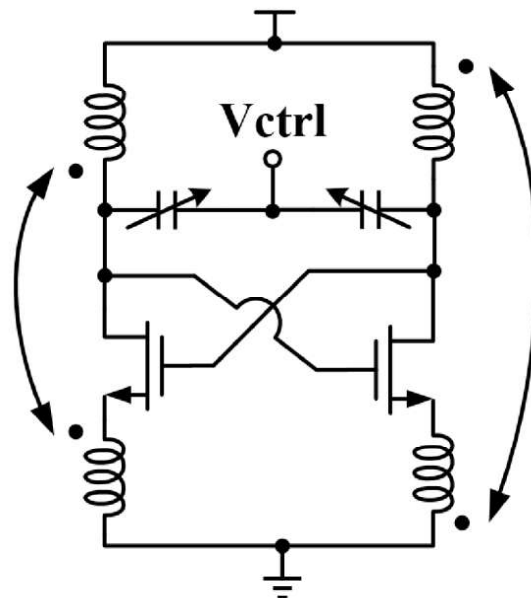


Figure 3-9. Schematic of the Class-C VCO IC applying analog amplitude feedback dynamic bias circuit in [10], [11].

3.1.3 65-nm CMOS process

In the modern RF IC design, the CMOS process is renowned for cost effectiveness in mass production and the capability of high System-On-Chip integration with digital parts. The 65nm CMOS process for fabrication includes 12 metal layers, in which 1.2 μ m thick aluminum is used as top layer for high Q-factor inductor design.

The cut-off frequency (f_T) and maximum oscillation frequency (f_{MAX}) of transistor are employed to evaluate the high frequency characteristic of transistor. f_T is defined as

the frequency when the current gain (H_{21}) decreases to 0 dB. The maximum oscillation frequency (f_{MAX}) is defined as the frequency when Mason's Unilateral Power Gain (G_{max}) decreases to 0 dB. G_{max} refers to the maximized power gain with respect to the reflection coefficients of source and load (Γ_s and Γ_L), after device has been unilateralized by lossless reciprocal embedding [12].

Figure 3-10 shows the cross section of the Metal-Oxide-Semiconductor Field-Effect Transistors (MOSFETs) in the 65-nm CMOS process. With a peak f_T and f_{MAX} over 200 GHz and a threshold voltage below 0.5 V, the nMOSFET is well qualified for 2-GHz-band VCO IC implementation. It is noted that triple-well process is available, in which the deep-n-well layer is inserted between p-well channel layer and p-substrate. Since this structure forms the p-n-p junction, the p-well channel layer is isolated to the p-substrate. Thus, according to the back-gate effect, the p-well channel layer (body) can be positively biased to decrease V_{TH} for the low voltage applications.

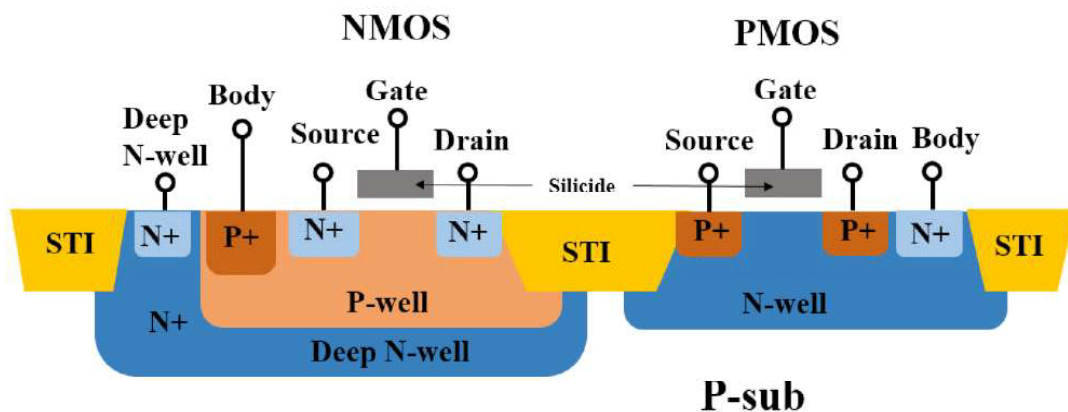


Figure 3-10. Cross section of the triple-well MOS transistors.

3.2 Operation principle

3.2.1 Block diagram of VCO IC

Figure 3-11 illustrates the simplified block diagram of proposed VCO IC, which consists of an LC-VCO, a power detector and a comparator. The detector and the comparator form an amplitude feedback loop circuit.

In the initial state, the LC-VCO starts to oscillate in class-AB operation. The DC output voltage of the detector increases as the amplitude of the LC-VCO output signal increases. The comparator compares the output voltage of the detector with the

reference voltage. The reference voltage V_{ref} of comparator is set to half of the maximum output voltage of the detector. When the detector output is larger than V_{ref} , the comparator feeds back a lower DC voltage to the LC-VCO to realize low power operation.

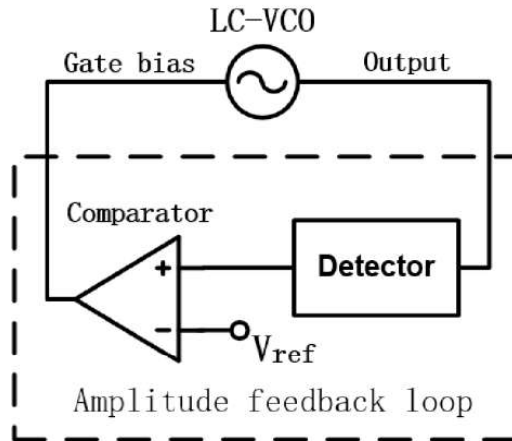


Figure 3-11. Block diagram of the VCO IC.

3.2.2 LC-VCO design

The cross-coupled LC-VCO topology is adapted due to its robust start-up and simple circuit implementation, as shown in Figure 3-12. Main interest in this paper is challenging to realize an ultra-low-voltage VCO IC. For oscillation to occur, the negative resistance generated by the cross-coupled transistors must cancel the loss of the LC resonant tank.

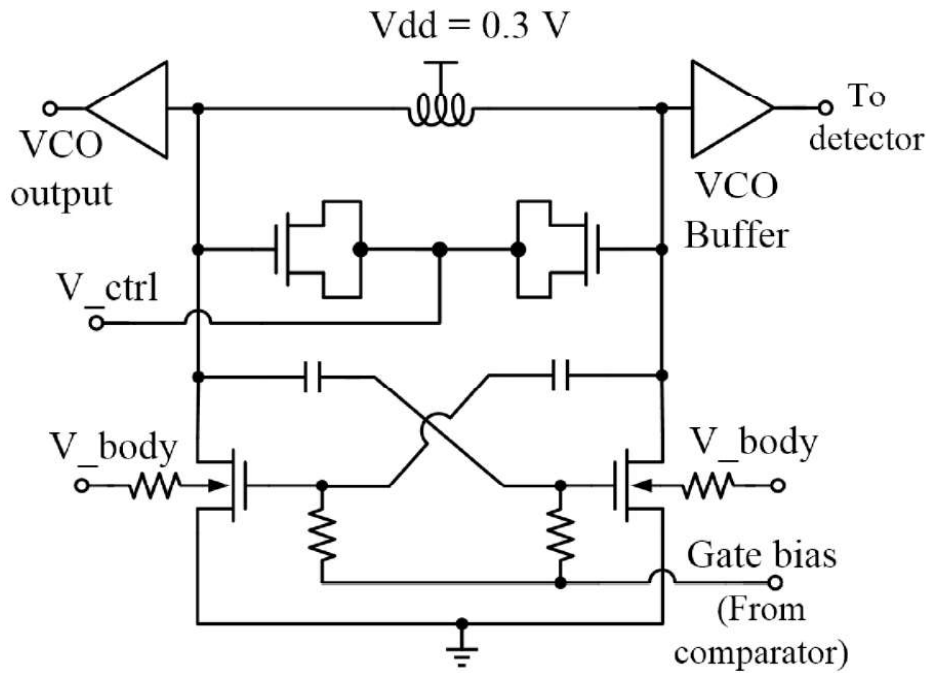


Figure 3-12. Circuit schematic of the LC-VCO core.

It is known that body-biasing technique can decrease the threshold voltage (V_{TH}) of a MOSFET and increase the small-signal transconductance (g_m), which helps the VCO to oscillate in low-voltage condition. Thus, triple-well process is applied for back-gate effect, in which the deep-n-well layer is inserted between p-well channel layer and p-substrate. Since this structure forms the p-n-p junction, the p-well channel layer is isolated to the p-substrate. Thus, the p-well channel layer (body) can be positively biased to decrease V_{TH} .

In the LC-VCO core circuit design, a gate bias circuit is inserted with resistors which are connected to the output of the comparator, as shown in Figure 3-12. Supply voltage (V_{dd}) of LC-VCO is from 0.3 V to 0.5 V, and comparator output voltage (V_{bias}) is 0.5 V in the initial state. Considering the low supply voltage, the conventional tail current source is eliminated to enlarge g_m and the voltage swing of the cross-coupled transistor pairs. To generate an appropriate DC bias current and g_m large enough with $V_{bias} = 0.5$ V, the total gate width of the cross-coupled transistor is chosen to 80 μm , and the gate length is 65 nm. After oscillation start-up, comparator output voltage decreases and the cross-coupled transistors bias is shifted from high V_g s to low V_g s with lower DC bias current. Since the breakdown voltage of 65-nm CMOS process is 1.2 V, full voltage swing operation is affordable to long time reliability. In addition, decreasing the loss of the LC resonant circuit is very important to satisfy the

oscillation start-up condition in low voltage operation. For LC resonant circuit design, a single symmetric inductor is optimized to 4 nH with a Q-factor of 11.7 at 2.4 GHz.

Figure 3-13 shows the simulated performance of oscillation frequencies under class-AB operation in steady state. It is expected that the LC-VCO starts to oscillate with an ultra-low supply voltage of only 0.3 V. Frequency tuning range is 9.8 % (from 2.23 to 2.46 GHz) with 0.5 V voltage supply and 8.7 % (from 2.3 to 2.51 GHz) with 0.3 V voltage supply.

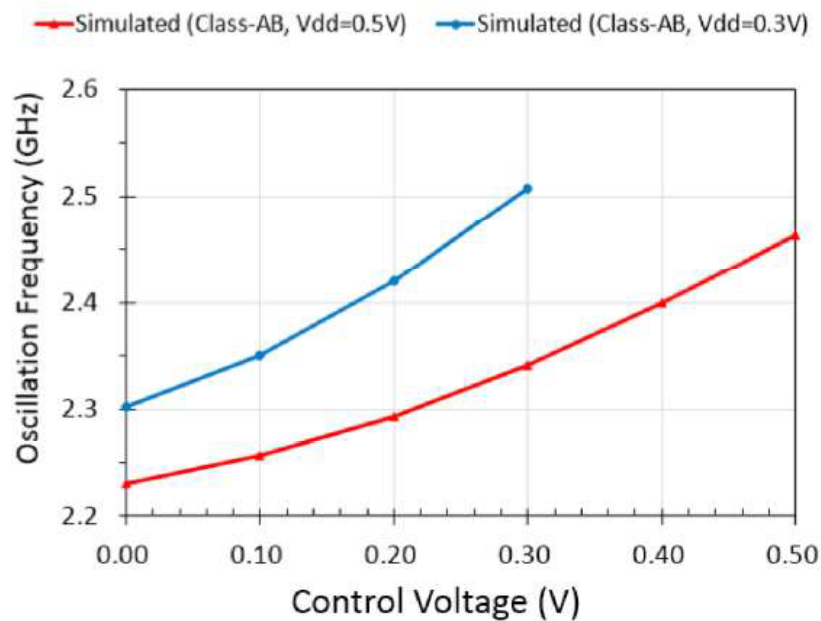


Figure 3-13. Simulated oscillation frequency vs. control voltage (V_{ctrl}).

Figure 3-14 shows the load lines of the cross-coupled transistor at $V_{dd} = 0.3$ V, which confirms the operational region of the cross-coupled transistors. With $V_{TH} < V_{gs} \leq V_{dd} + V_{TH}$ bias, cross-coupled transistors work in saturation region and ensure an oscillation start-up.

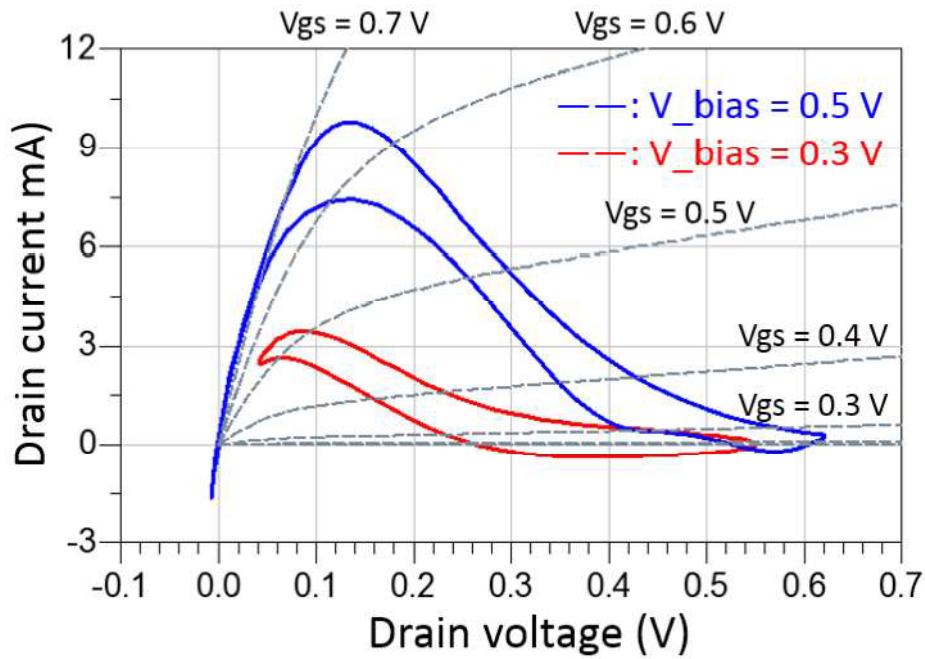


Figure 3-14. Simulated NMOS load lines at $V_{dd} = 0.3$ V with $(V_{bias}) = 0.3$ and 0.5 V.

3.2.3 Amplitude feedback bias circuit design

Figure 3-15 illustrates circuit schematic of the detector [13]. This topology employs the nonlinear behavior of both NMOSFET M1 and PMOSFET M2 to detect the input signal and transfer the ac input signal amplitude to DC output voltage. The core of the detector is formed by transistors M1 and M2, resistor R1, and MIM capacitors C1 and C2. Capacitor C1 serves as dc block and is set to large value (5 pF) to decrease the power loss from the detector input to the gate of M1. Large resistor R1 (5 K Ω) supplies the dc component of gate-to-source voltage (V_{gs_dc}) of M1 the same as dc component of drain-to-source voltage (V_{ds_dc}) of M1. Capacitor C2 serves like a low-pass filter and keeps the M1 V_{ds_dc} constant. PMOSFET M2 serves as a current source and provides M1 with small dc bias current (I_{bias}).

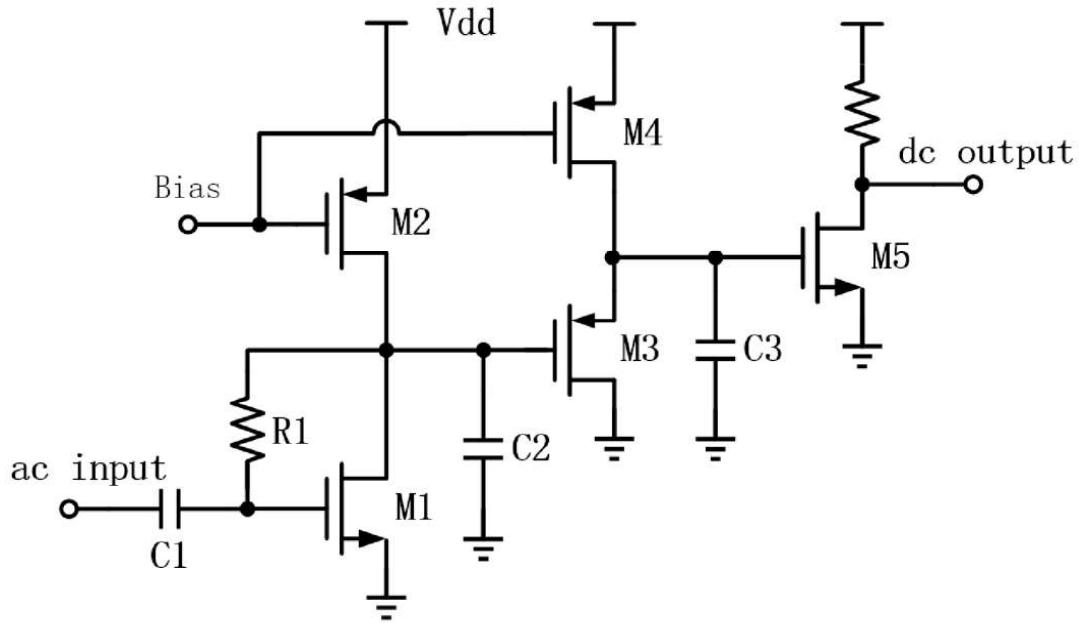


Figure 3-15. Circuit schematic of the power detector.

When the detector has no input signal, $M1$ V_{gs_dc} is near to V_{TH} . Since V_{dd} is 0.5 V, $M2$ V_{ds_dc} is only about 0.1 V and $M2$ works in triode region. When the detector has a small ac input signal, the output voltage of $M1$ ($V_{M1.out}$) is:

$$V_{M1.out} = V_{TH} + \sqrt{\frac{2L_{M1}}{\mu_n C_{OX} W_{M1}} I_{bias} - \frac{A^2}{2}} \quad (3-10)$$

where A is the peak amplitude of the input signal assuming a sinusoidal waveform. W_{M1} and L_{M1} are the total gate width and gate length of $M1$. μ_n and C_{OX} are NMOS mobility and gate capacitance per unit area, respectively.

When the detector input power slightly increases, the dc component of drain current (I_{d_dc}) of $M1$ and $M2$ increase as shown in Figure 3-16. Since $M2$ works in the triode region, $M2$ V_{ds_dc} increases for larger $M2$ I_{d_dc} , which means that $M1$ V_{ds_dc} and $M1$ V_{gs_dc} decrease. Then $M1$ V_{gs_dc} is lower than V_{TH} and $M1$ enters the weak-inversion region. As $M2$ V_{ds_dc} continues to increase, $M2$ enters the saturation region and then $M2$ I_{d_dc} keeps constant. As $M1$ V_{gs_ac} increases with input power increasing, $M1$ V_{gs_dc} continues to decrease to keep the $M1$ I_{d_dc} constant.

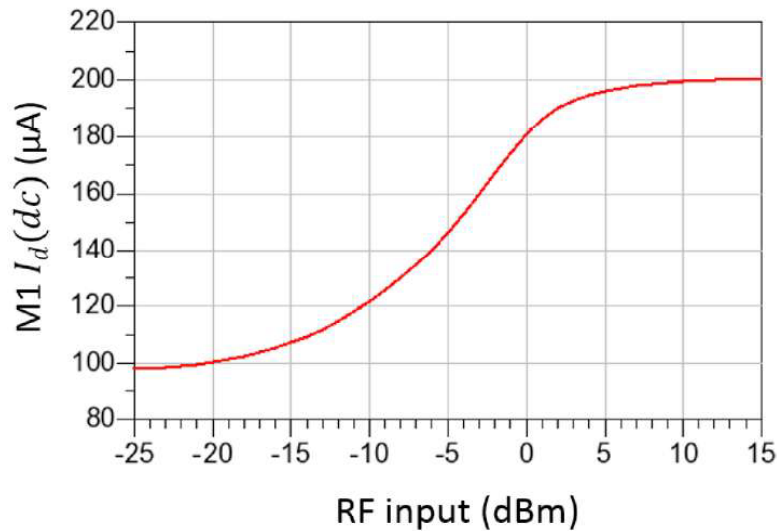


Figure 3-16. M1 I_d dc vs. input power.

Figure 3-17 shows the time domain waveform of M1 gate to source voltage (M1 V_{gs_ac}) and M1 drain current (M1 I_d_ac) with increasing detector input signal power. As RF input power increases, dc bias of M1 V_{gs_dc} decreases and conduction angle of M1 I_d_ac decreases.

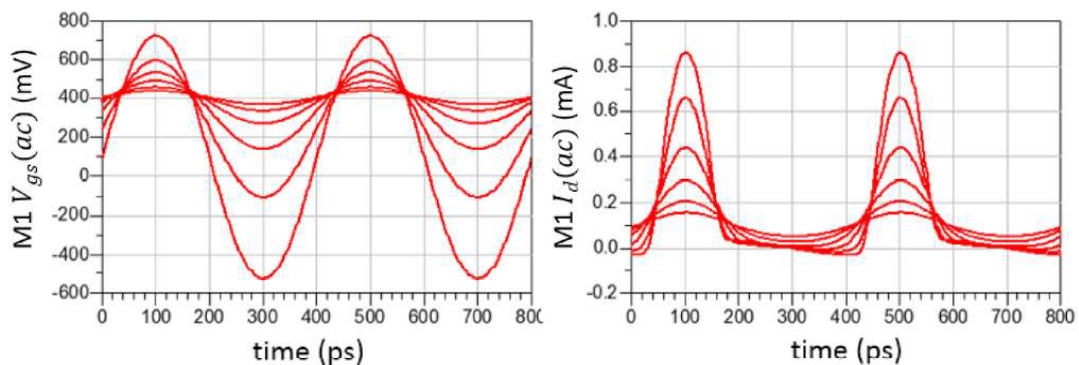


Figure 3-17. M1 V_{gs_ac} and M1 I_d_ac waveform with different input power.

A two-stage amplifier is connected to the detector core circuit. The first stage is PMOS source follower for DC level conversion. A large capacitor ($C3 = 5$ pF) serves as a low pass filter. The second stage is the NMOS common source amplifier for DC voltage amplification.

Figure 3-18 illustrates the simulated dependence of the DC output voltage on the input power. The frequency of the input signal is 2.4 GHz, and the operation voltage is 0.5 V. The output DC voltage gradually increases with increasing the input power, and the threshold power is around -10 dBm.

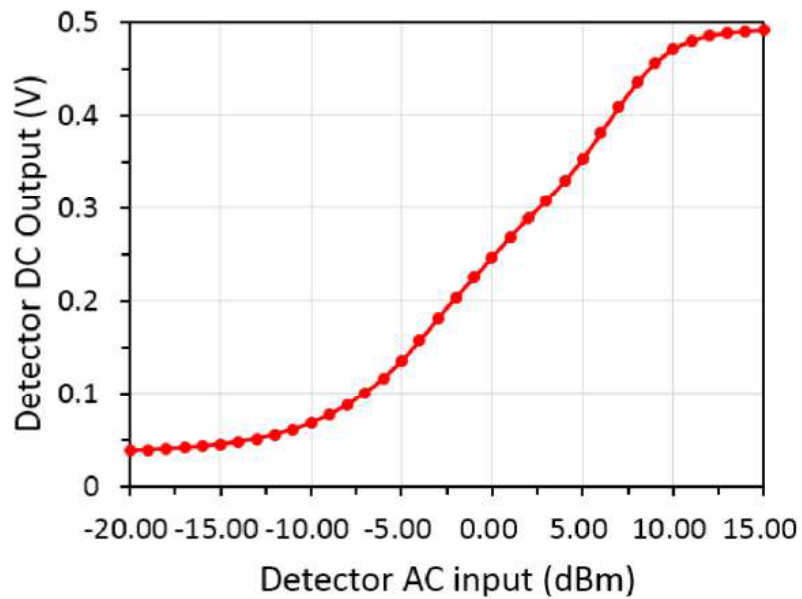


Figure 3-18. Simulated DC output voltage vs. ac input power of the power detector.

Figure 3-19 illustrates circuit schematic of the comparator. Transistors M6, M7, M8, M9 and M10 form an open-loop operational amplifier. In the initial state, the detector output is close to 0 V, and the comparator output is close to V_{DD} of the feedback loop (0.5 V). After oscillation starts up, the DC output voltage of the detector increases. The reference voltage V_{REF} is set to one-half of the maximum output voltage of the detector. When the comparator input voltage is larger than V_{REF} , the gate to source voltage of M11 increases. Transistor M11 forms a buffer amplifier with a source degeneration resistor (R_s), which limits the minimum output voltage of the comparator to provide an optimal bias voltage for low power oscillation.

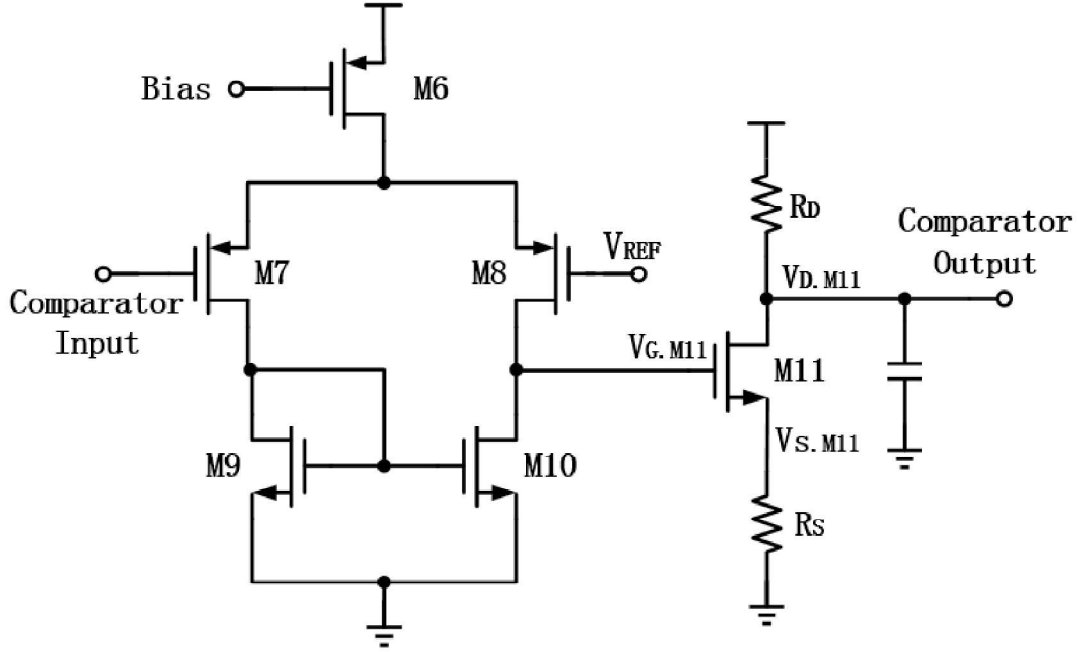


Figure 3-19. Circuit schematic of the comparator.

For transistor M11, drain current:

$$I_{M11.D} = \frac{1}{2} \mu_n C_{OX} \frac{W_{M11}}{L_{M11}} (V_{M11.G} - I_{M11.D} R_S - V_{TH})^2 \quad (3-11)$$

where W_{M11} and L_{M11} are the total gate width and gate length of M11, μ_n and C_{OX} are NMOS mobility and gate capacitance per unit area, respectively.

And the output voltage of comparator:

$$V_{COMP.out} = V_{M11.D} = V_{dd} - I_{M11.D} R_D \quad (3-12)$$

For low power oscillation, the target of comparator output voltage is around V_{TH} , Thus, R_S can be calculated:

$$R_S = \left(\frac{V_{M11.G} - V_{TH}}{V_{dd} - V_{TH}} - \sqrt{\frac{2L_{M11}}{\mu_n C_{OX} W_{M11} (V_{dd} - V_{TH})}} \right) \times R_D \quad (3-13)$$

The comparator is designed to enhance the stability of the feedback loop. Since a fast transient of the LC-VCO gate to source bias potentially causes the oscillation to stop, a large capacitor (5 pF) is employed at the load of comparator as a low pass filter to make the bias voltage gradually decrease. In addition, to ensure the LC-VCO gate to source bias voltage high enough for continuous oscillation, the minimum output voltage of the comparator is controlled by a buffer amplifier with source degeneration.

3.3 Circuit design

3.3.1 Schematic of VCO IC

Figure 3-20 shows the detailed schematic of low power VCO IC with the proposed amplitude feedback bias circuit. Initially, the LC-VCO does not start oscillation and the detector dc output voltage is low. Thus, the comparator dc input voltage is lower than V_{REF} and the dc output voltage of comparator is high, which provides a high V_{gs} bias voltage for the LC-VCO. With a high V_{gs} and a high I_d bias, the LC-VCO starts oscillation. After oscillation, the detector detects the oscillation and the dc output voltage of detector increases. When the dc input voltage of the comparator increases and is higher than V_{REF} , the dc output voltage of comparator decreases. Hence, the V_{gs} bias and current consumption of the LC-VCO decreases. The LC-VCO is shifted from the initial robust oscillation start-up to the low power steady oscillation state.

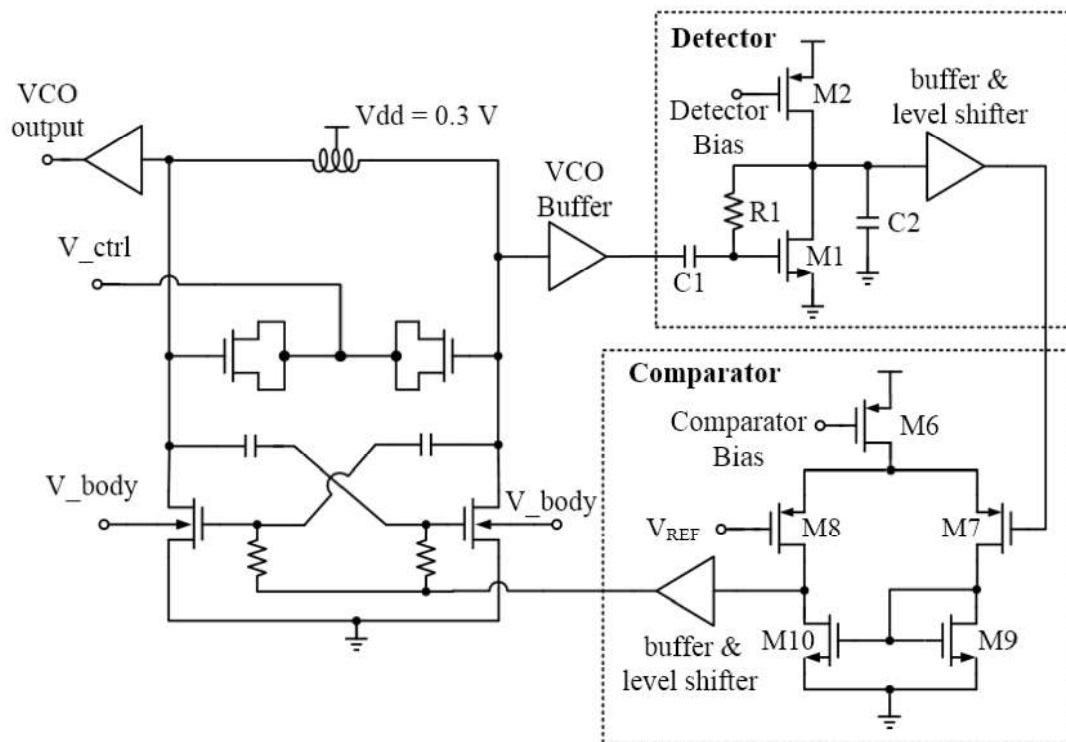


Figure 3-20. Detailed schematic of VCO IC with the proposed bias circuit.

3.3.2 Simulated performance

A transient simulation is performed to confirm the oscillation start-up and amplitude feedback performance of the VCO IC. Figure 3-21 illustrates the output waveform of the detector and comparator to confirm the feedback loop operation.

Initially, output voltage of the detector is close to 0 V, and output voltage of the comparator is about 0.5 V. The cross-coupled transistors are biased at Class-AB operation to ensure the oscillation start-up. When the oscillation starts, the detector output voltage increases and the comparator output decreases to about 0.3 V. Consequently, the operation of the LC-VCO changes from high power to low power.

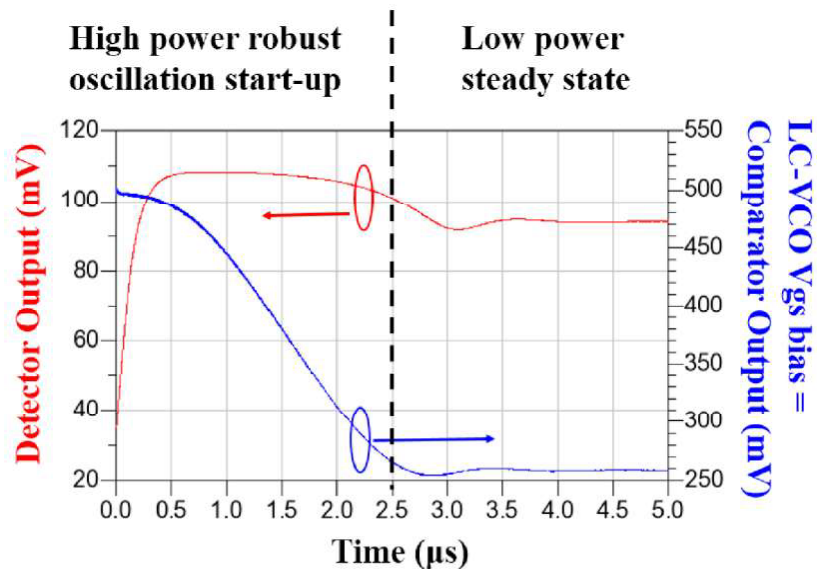


Figure 3-21. Simulated transient detector and comparator output voltage.

Figure 3-22 shows the simulated waveform of the drain voltage of the LC-VCO cross-coupled transistors. From high power to low power oscillation, the voltage swing of the VCO slightly decreases. Figure 3-23 shows the simulated waveform of the drain current of the LC-VCO cross-coupled transistors. From high power to low power oscillation, the current swing significantly decreases from 10 mA to 4 mA. Therefore, it is expected that this amplitude feedback loop stably operates and effectively decreases the current consumption of the LC-VCO.

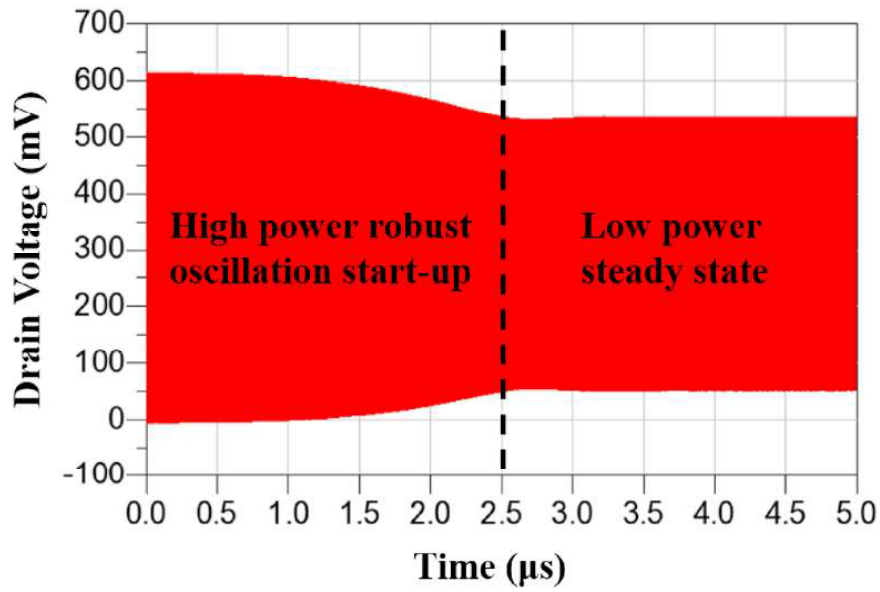


Figure 3-22. Simulated transient drain voltage of the LC-VCO cross-coupled transistors.

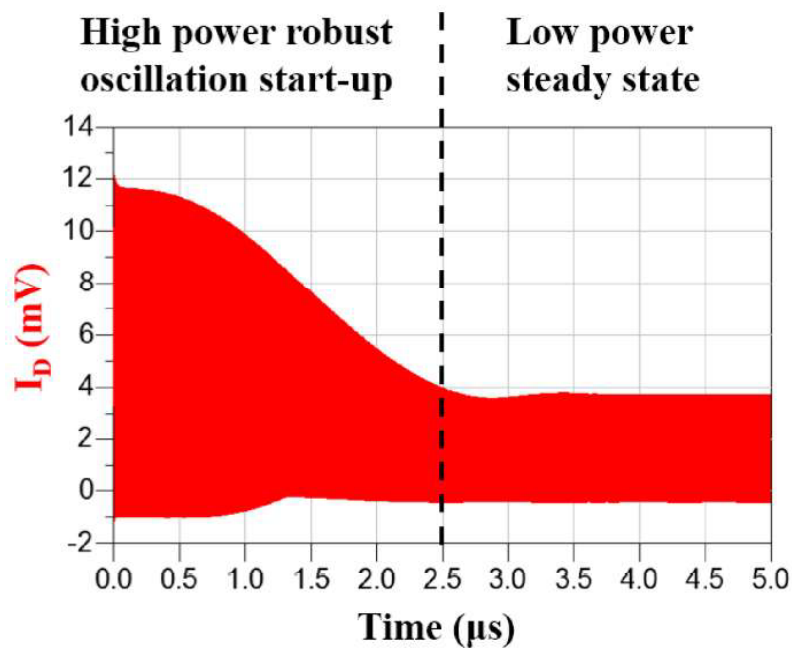


Figure 3-23. Simulated transient drain current of the LC-VCO cross-coupled transistors.

3.4 Measured performance

Figure 3-24 illustrates the microphotograph of the VCO IC fabricated in 65-nm CMOS process. The core size of the VCO IC is 710 μm by 390 μm excluding pads.

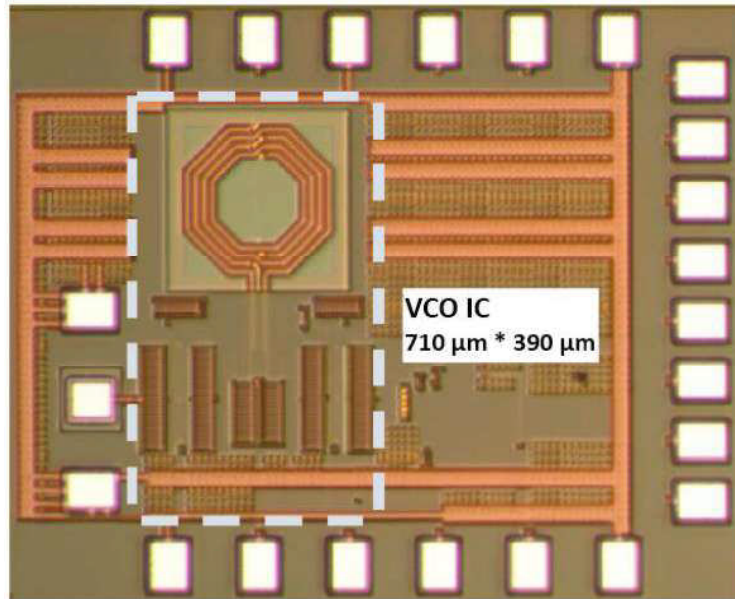


Figure 3-24. Die photograph of the VCOIC.

The measurements of the VCO IC was carried out using on-wafer probes. The DC current consumption of the LC-VCO core are 5.2 mA at a supply voltage of 0.5 V and 1.92 mA at 0.3 V, respectively. Power consumption of the proposed VCO is only 0.58 mW with a 0.3 V supply voltage.

Figure 3-25 depicts measured dependence of oscillation frequencies in steady-state on the control voltage. The measured oscillation frequency bands are from 2.09 to 2.29 GHz (9.1 %) at a supply voltage of 0.5V, from 2.16 to 2.36 GHz (8.8 %) at a supply voltage of 0.4V, from 2.25 to 2.48 GHz (9.7 %) at a supply voltage of 0.3 V, respectively. Compared to the simulation results, measured oscillation frequency band at low power state changes only around 5 %, which shows a good agreement. This tiny change is probably caused by the parasitic effects of the layout, and the change of junction capacitance of nMOSFET from initial high power start-up to low power steady-state oscillation.

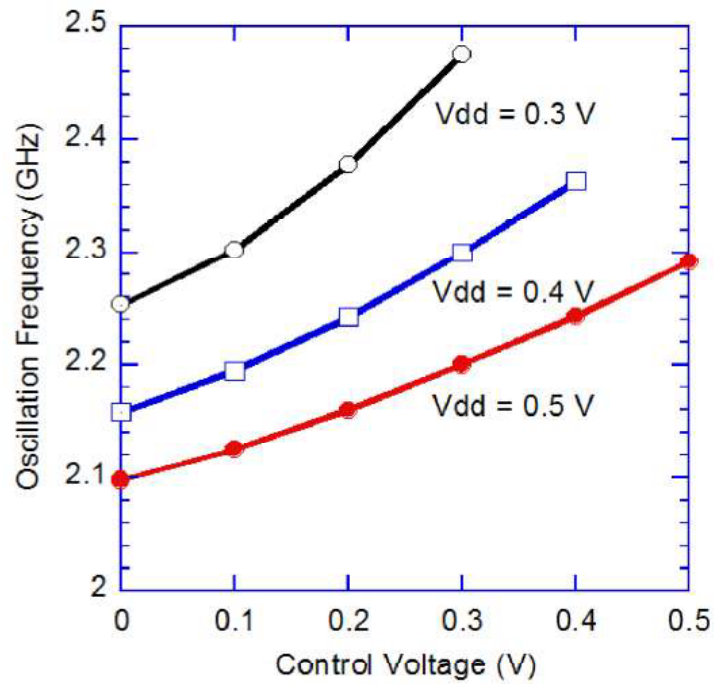


Figure 3-25. Measured oscillation frequency.

Figure 3-26 shows the measured oscillation frequency of the VCO IC with sweeping the supply voltage. When supply voltage decreases from 0.6 to 0.28 V, oscillation frequency increases from 2.10 to 2.27 GHz with control voltage fixed to 0 V. It is confirmed that the VCO IC can oscillate at a supply voltage over 0.28 V.

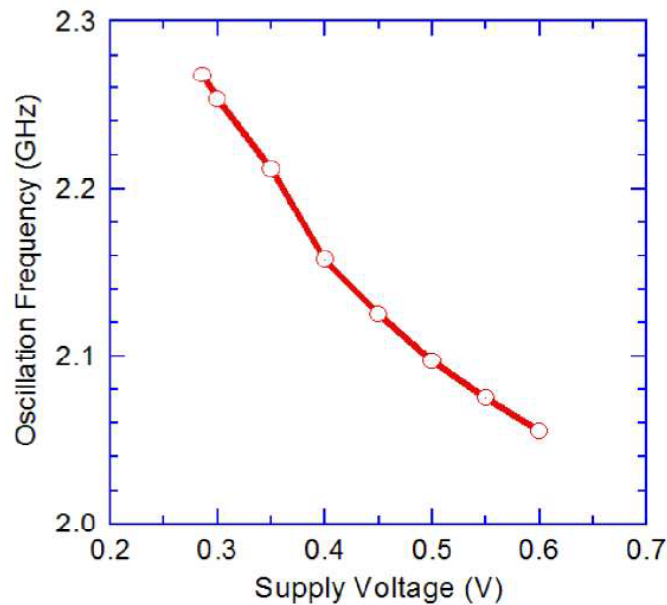


Figure 3-26. Measured oscillation frequency vs. supply voltage.

Figure 3-27 depicts measured phase noise at an operation voltage of 0.3 V. The LC-VCO IC exhibits a measured phase noise of -111 dBc/Hz at 1 MHz offset from the 2.43 GHz carrier frequency. There are some phase noise spurs around 1 MHz offset frequency. Since the VCO IC chip is directly measured on wafer by probes, the phase noise measurement is sensitive to the noise of measurement environment.

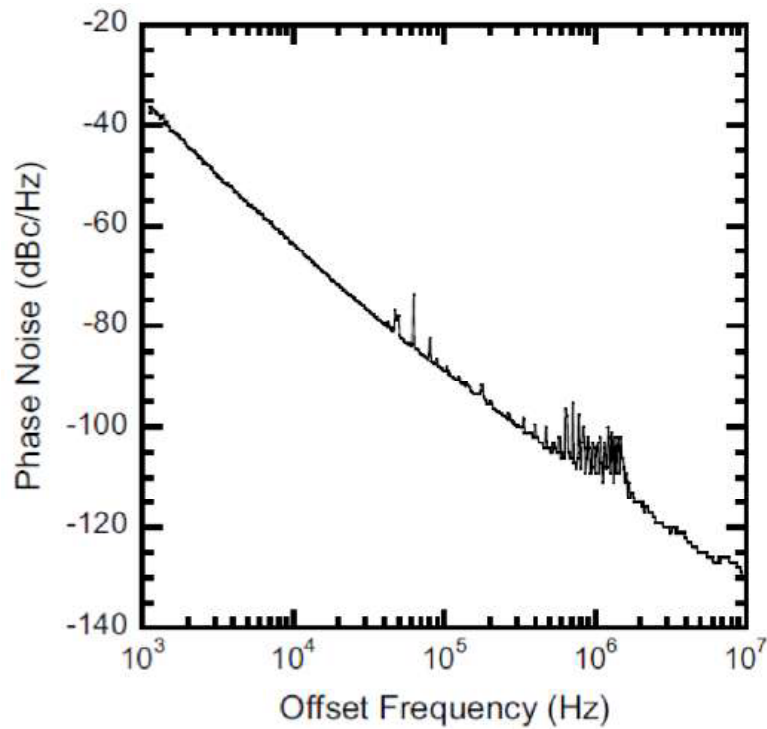


Figure 3-27. Measured phase noise at a power supply of 0.3V.

At an operation voltage of only 0.3 V, Figure-Of-Merit (FOM), which is widely used for performance comparison of VCOs, is:

$$\text{FOM} = L(\Delta f_m) - 20 \log\left(\frac{f_o}{f_m}\right) + 10 \log\left(\frac{P_{diss}}{1 \text{ mW}}\right) \approx -181.1 \text{ dBc/Hz} \quad (3-14)$$

where $L(\Delta f_m)$ is the phase noise at the offset frequency (f_m), f_o is the oscillation frequency, and P_{diss} is the dissipation power of the VCO.

Table 3-1 summarizes the performance of the proposed VCO IC with other reported low-voltage VCOs. This work shows a competitive phase noise and FOM with ultra-low-voltage operation and low power consumption.

Table 3-1. Comparison with previous VCO ICs

Ref.	Process	Freq. (GHz)	Vdd (V)	DC power (mW)	Phase Noise @ 1MHz (dBc/Hz)	FOM (dBc/Hz)
[8]	90-nm CMOS	3.97	1.2	6.6	-127	-190.8
[10]	65-nm CMOS	2.04	0.3	0.78	-102	-169.3
[14]	65-nm CMOS	5.54	0.5	0.92	-105	-180.2
This work	65-nm CMOS	2.43	0.3	0.57	-111.0	-181.1

3.5 Conclusion

A novel 2.4-GHz band ultra-low-voltage and low power VCO IC with an amplitude feedback bias circuit has been demonstrated in 65-nm CMOS process. The VCO IC consists of an LC-VCO circuit and an amplitude feedback bias circuit.

For the ultra-low-voltage operation, the tail current bias circuit of the LC-VCO is removed and black-gate effect is adopted to decrease the V_{TH} of transistor. For the low power oscillation without the oscillation start-up problem, an amplitude feedback bias is proposed including the power detector, voltage comparator, dc level shifter and buffer amplifier. The proposed bias circuit adaptively changes the bias voltage of LC-VCO according to the output power of VCO, and shifts the oscillation state of LC-VCO from initial high power oscillation start-up state to steady low power state.

The VCO-IC has achieved a low power consumption of 0.58 mW, a phase noise of -111 dBc/Hz and an FOM of 181 dBc/Hz at a power supply of only 0.3 V. The measured performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed amplitude feedback bias circuit of decreasing the power consumption of VCO without influencing the oscillation start-up. Since the VCO significantly influences the power consumption of transceiver, it is expected that the proposed topology could decrease the power consumption of transceiver IC.

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Chapter 4 Low Power SiGe HBT Down-conversion SHM IC with a Tail Current Bias Circuit

4.1 Introduction

In Chapter 3, a low voltage and low power VCO IC with an amplitude feedback bias circuit for 2-GHz band applications has been demonstrated in 65-nm CMOS process.

In this chapter, a low power Sub-harmonic Mixer (SHM) IC is designed for 80-GHz applications [1]-[2]. Down-conversion mixer is a key component of the RF receivers. As introduced in Chapter 1, sub-harmonic mixer (SHM) can mix the RF signal with the second harmonic of the LO ($2f_{LO}$) signal. With relatively low oscillation frequency, the oscillator has better phase noise performance, and the buffer of the oscillator can provide higher LO power with lower power consumption. Hence, SHM is an attractive solution in the W-band receivers.

For SHM IC design, decreasing the LO power requirement is effective to decrease the output power and power consumption of LO buffer. In addition, making the conversion gain of SHM insensitive to LO power could remove the power control circuit of LO buffer and accordingly decrease the power consumption of LO buffer. Thus, SHM should be designed with low LO power requirement and with conversion gain insensitive to LO power. In this work, a novel bottom-LO configuration is proposed to decrease the LO power requirement of SHM. A tail current bias circuit is proposed to make the conversion gain insensitive to LO power. The proposed bias circuit adaptively changes the bias voltage of LO stage to flatten the $2^* f_{LO}$ generation and to flatten the conversion gain with injected LO power changing.

A bottom-LO-configured SHM IC with the proposed bias circuit for 80-GHz band applications is designed, fabricated and measured in 130-nm SiGe BiCMOS technology. From comparison, a conventional top-LO-configured SHM IC is also designed, fabricated and measured.

At the beginning of this chapter, introduction is given in Section 4.1, including the review of previously reported down-conversion SHM ICs and brief descriptions of 130-nm SiGe BiCMOS for chip fabrication. The working principles of the proposed bottom-LO-configured SHM (with and without a tail current source) and the conventional top-

LO-configured one are described and compared in Section 4.2. Then in Section 4.3, the circuit design including the schematic and simulated performance of both the proposed and conventional SHM ICs are presented. In Section 4.4, measured performance of the SHM ICs is demonstrated with the comparison of previous works. Finally, conclusions are given in Section 4.5.

4.1.1 Review of reported down-conversion SHM ICs

Figure 4-1 shows the schematic of a Passive Anti-Parallel Diode Pair (APDP) SHM IC reported in [3]. The diode passive mixer has the advantages of no dc power consumption, high operation frequency and high linearity. However, the passive mixer requires particularly high LO power (10 dBm) and significant conversion loss (-8 dB).

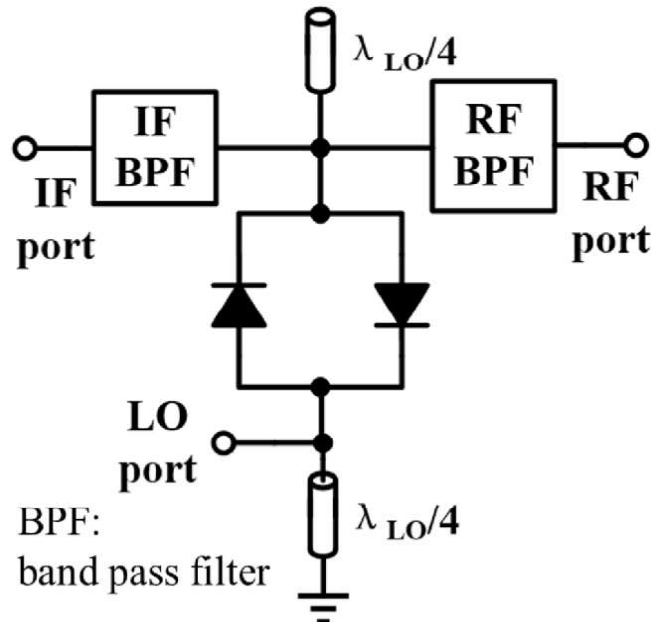


Figure 4-1. Passive Anti-Parallel Diode Pair (APDP) SHM IC reported in [3].

Figure 4-2 shows the schematic of a Sub-harmonically pumped gate SHM IC reported in [4]. As an active mixer, the SHM could have conversion gain. This topology re-used the LO frequency doubling stage and RF amplifying stage, which decreased the supply voltage. However, the 90° phase shifter of LO signal for the LO isolation network had high loss and increased the LO power requirement (6 dBm). Another critical issue of this topology was the bias voltage. Class-C bias voltage is required for the $2 * f_{LO}$ generation, while Class-AB bias region is required for the RF signal amplification. Thus, conversion gain of the SHM IC was suppressed.

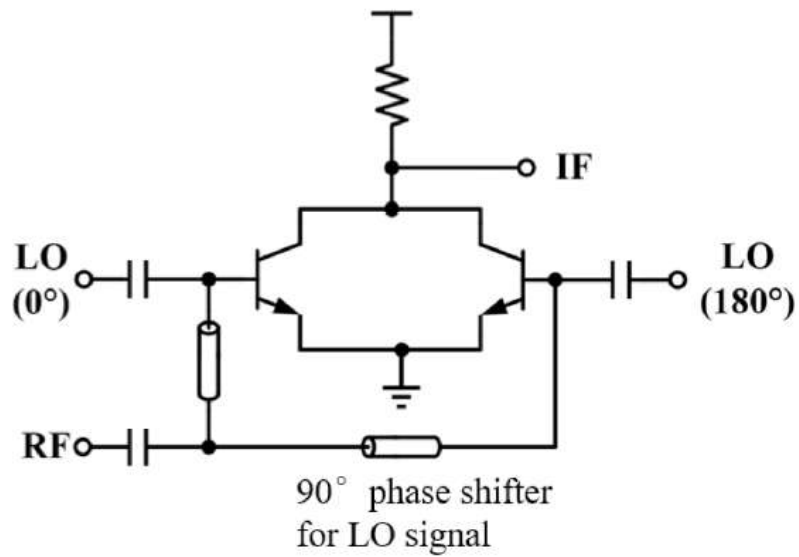


Figure 4-2. Sub-harmonically pumped gate SHM IC reported in [4].

Paper [5] reported an SHM topology with a compact input network, as shown in Figure 4-3. L1 and C1 resonant at f_{LO} to prevent LO-RF leakage, while L2 and C2 resonant at f_{RF} to prevent RF-LO leakage. The LC network provides a 90° phase shift at f_{RF} ($\approx 2f_{LO}$) and a corresponding 180° phase shift at f_{LO} . From the base of HBT Q1 to the base of HBT Q2 with two LC networks, RF signals are transferred from single-ended to differential while LO signal is kept at the same phase. This topology has high LO-RF and 2LO-RF isolation between the LO and RF ports. However, it is challenging to realize the RF and LO input matching at the same time. Thus, this topology requires high LO pumping power.

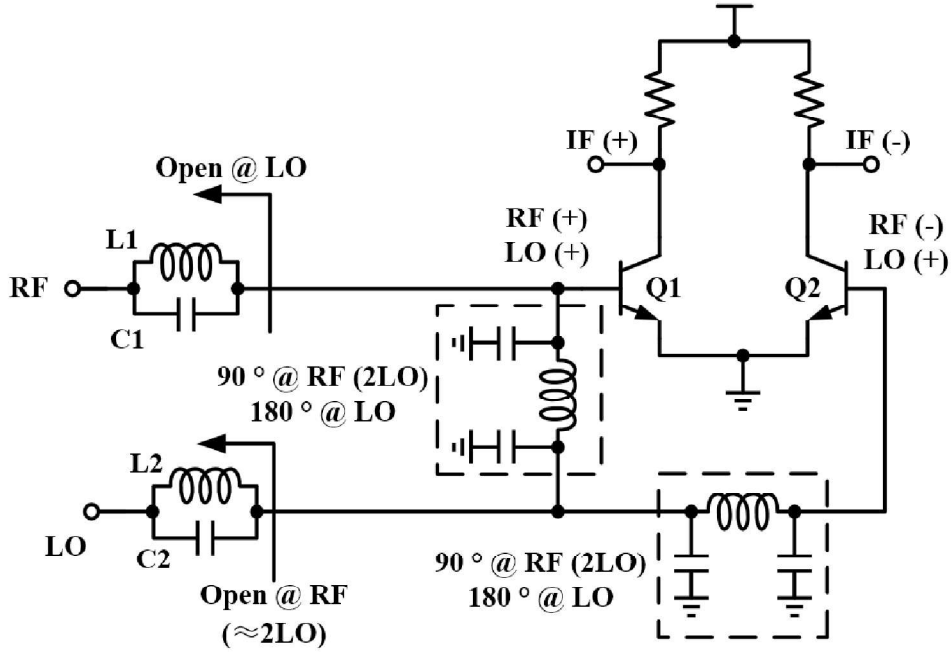


Figure 4-3. Reported balanced SHM with a compact network [5]

Gilbertcell topologies are also widely used to implement SHMs. Three kinds of the Gilbert-cell based SHMs are reported and extensively used: three-level stacked-LO SHMs [6]-[9], levelled-LO SHMs with bottom-LO configuration [10]-[12] and top-LO configuration [13]-[15].

Figure 4-4(a) shows the schematic of the three-level stacked-LO SHM, which uses the current switching mechanism to mix the f_{RF} signal with the $2 \cdot f_{LO}$ harmonic to generate the f_{IF} signal. For simplification, the behaviors of LO stage HBTs are regarded as ideal switches and the RF currents (I_{RFP} and I_{RFN}) are modulated by the LO stages. The switching functions of LO stages are square waveforms toggling between off (0) and on (1) and are expressed as S_1, S_2, S_3 and S_4 , as shown in Figure 4-4(a). The phase differences of the switching functions are dependent on the phase differences of the LO signals injected at the base of HBTs. Thus, the time domain waveforms of S_1, S_2, S_3 and S_4 are drawn in Figure 4-4(b). The RF stage transfers the f_{RF} voltage input to f_{RF} current (I_{RFP} and I_{RFN}). The down LO stage switches the I_{RFP} and I_{RFN} and generates the current I_1 and I_2 . The up LO stage switches the I_1 and I_2 and generates the IF output current I_{IFP} and I_{IFN} . Hence, I_{IFP} and I_{IFN} can be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned}
 I_{IFP} &= S_3 I_1 + S_4 I_2 = S_3 (S_1 I_{RFP} + S_2 I_{RFN}) + S_4 (S_2 I_{RFP} + S_1 I_{RFN}) \\
 &= (S_1 S_3 + S_2 S_4) I_{RFP} + (S_1 S_4 + S_2 S_3) I_{RFN} \quad (4-1) \\
 I_{IFN} &= S_4 I_1 + S_3 I_2 = S_4 (S_1 I_{RFP} + S_2 I_{RFN}) + S_3 (S_2 I_{RFP} + S_1 I_{RFN})
 \end{aligned}$$

$$=(S_1S_3 + S_2S_4) I_{RFN} + (S_1S_4 + S_2S_3) I_{RFP} \quad (4-2)$$

Figure 4-4(b) illustrates the time domain waveforms of the switching functions $S_1S_3+S_2S_4$ and $S_1S_4+S_2S_3$. It is obvious that these two switching functions have a phase difference of 180° . Considering the phase difference between the I_{RFN} and I_{RFP} is also 180° , I_{IFP} and I_{IFN} can be calculated as:

$$I_{IFP} = 2(S_1S_3 + S_2S_4) I_{RFP} = -I_{IFN} \quad (4-3)$$

It is noted that the frequency of $S_1S_3+S_2S_4$ is twice of frequency of the S_1 (f_{LO}). Hence, I_{IFP} is modulated by the $2 * f_{LO}$ and the IF frequency: $f_{IF} = f_{RF} - 2 * f_{LO}$.

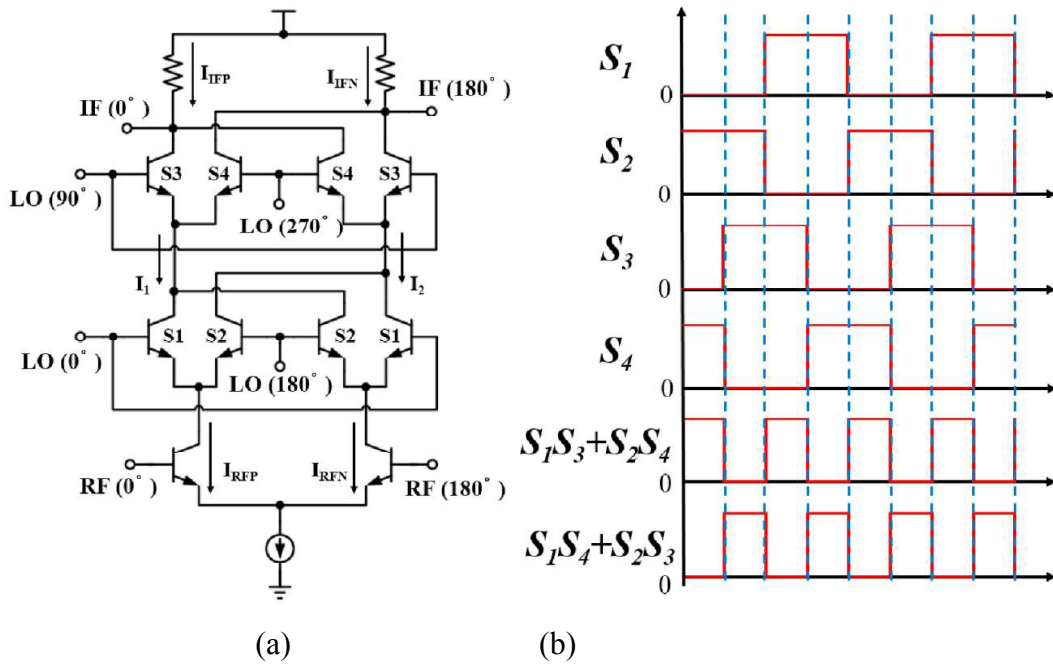


Figure 4-4. (a) Reported Gilbert-cell three-level stacked-LO SHM in [6]-[9].(b) time domain waveform of the LO stage switching function.

Gilbert-cell levelled-LO SHM topologies were reported including both bottom-LO configuration [10]-[12]and top-LO configuration [13]-[15], which use the nonlinearities of transistors to generate $2 * f_{LO}$ signal for mixing. Figure 4-5and Figure 4-6show the Gilbert-cell levelled-LO SHM with bottom-LOand top-LO configurations, respectively. The Gilbert-cell levelled-LO SHMs are essentially Gilbert-cell mixers. The HBTs in LO stages are replaced by the Common Emitter Common Collector Transistor Pairs(CECCTP), which double the frequency of LO signal. Since the LO frequency is doubled, the phase difference of LO signal is doubled. In the bottom-LO-configured Gilbert-cell SHM as shown in Figure 4-5, the $2 * f_{LO}$ output currents of

CECCTPs at the bottom are differential and are modulated by RF stages to generate the IF signal. However, the RF signals are small signals and the switching behaviors of RF HBTs are particularly weak, which significantly limits the conversion gain. Thus, top-LO-configured Gilbert-cell SHM with higher conversion are reported as shown in Figure 4-6. Four top CECCTP stages are applied to generate the double-balanced differential $2*f_{LO}$ signals. Hence, the differential RF current at the bottom are modulated by the $2*f_{LO}$ switching stages to generate the IF signal. The SHM in Figure 4-6 works like a traditional Gilbert-mixer with $2*f_{LO}$ injected at the top LO switching stages.

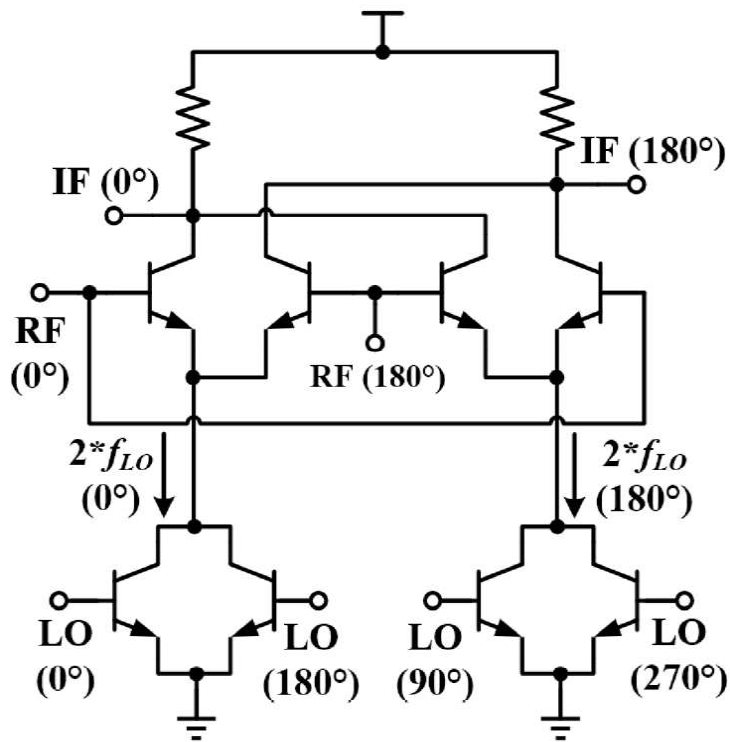


Figure 4-5. Reported Gilbert-cell levelled-LO SHM with bottom-LO configuration in [10]-[12].

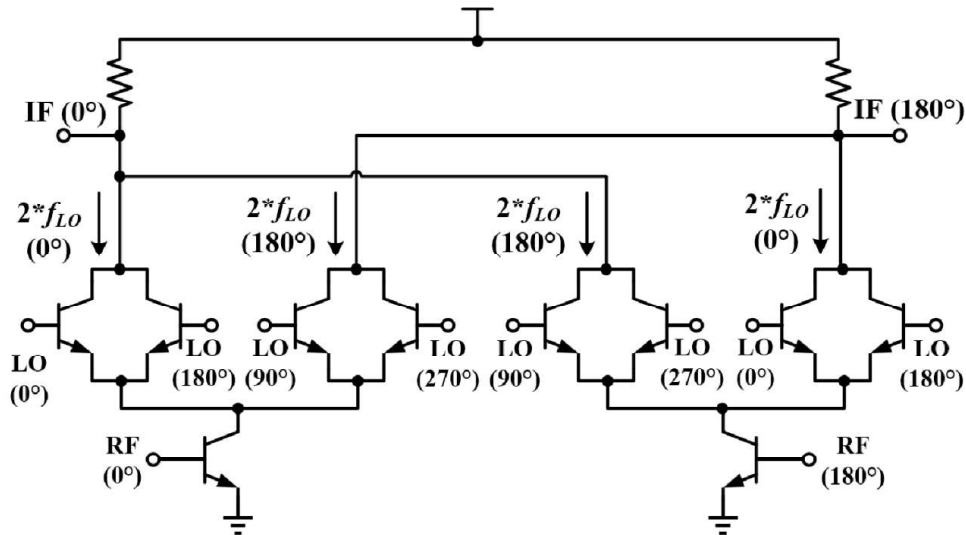


Figure 4-6. Reported Gilbert-cell levelled-LOSHM with top-LO configuration in [13]-[15].

The design trade-offs of the Gilbert-cell SHMs between stacked-LO and levelled-LO configurations were reported in [16]. It is reported that Gilbert-cell stacked-LO SHM has lower LO power requirement but lower operational frequency than the Gilbert-cell levelled-LO SHMs. This trade-off is mainly caused by the different operational principles. The transistor switching characteristic used by stacked-LO SHM is sensitive to signal frequency. The transistor nonlinearities used by levelled-LO SHMs is sensitive to signal power. In addition, paper [16] also reported trade-offs of the levelled-LO Gilbert-cell SHMs between the bottom-LO and top-LO configuration. Compared to the bottom-LO Gilbert-cell SHM, top-LO one has higher conversion gain and 2LO-to-RF isolation, but also has power consumption, lower linearity, and lower RF-to-IF isolation.

All these Gilbert-cell SHM topologies require a precise quadrature LO signal and have complicated circuit layouts, which make the implementation of Gilbert-cell SHMs for millimeter wave applications quite challenging. The CECCTP SHMs with top-LO configuration were also reported in [17]-[19], as shown in Figure 4-7. Owing to differential LO signal input and simple circuit layout, CECCTP structure is considerable for millimetre-wave SHM IC. In the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM, however, the bottom RF stage suppresses the generation of $2f_{LO}$ signal and results in a high requirement of LO power. Hence, in this work, an improved bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC with a tail current source is proposed for W-band applications [1]. The bottom-LO configuration decreases the LO power

requirement and the tail current source flatten the conversion gain.

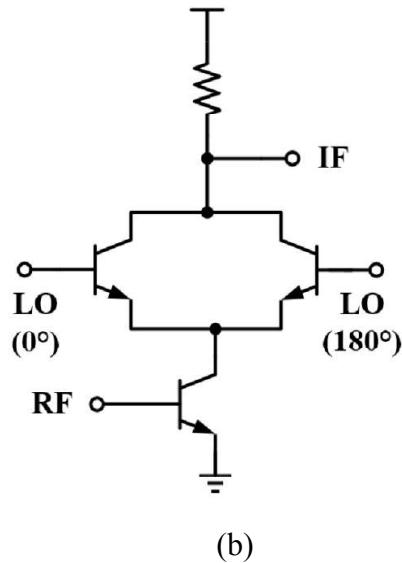


Figure 4-7. Conventional CCEETP mixer employing top-LO configuration reported in [17]-[19].

4.1.2 130-nm SiGe BiCMOS technology

130-nm SiGe BiCMOS process is applied to design and fabricate the SHM IC. The process has six layers of aluminum metal. The top metal (M6) has a thickness of 2.8 μm , which has low resistivity and is suitable to design and implement the low loss passive devices, such as inductor, microstrip line and Marchand balun. The MIM (Metal-Insulator-Metal) capacitor with low capacitance density on Metal 4 and stacked MIM capacitor with high capacitance density on Metal 3 and Metal 4 are available in this process.

It is noted that the high-speed NPN HBT has a collector implant layer, which increases the cut-off frequency but decreases the breakdown voltage. Deep Trenches (orange region) form the sidewall isolation from the n-type collector to the P-substrate. The deep trenches minimize the perimeter capacitance from collector to substrate. The details of this 130-nm BiCMOS process are described in [20].

Table 4-1 shows the typical measured specifications of the high-speed HBT with collector implant and the high-voltage HBT without collector implant. Since the high-speed HBT has a cut-off frequency (f_T) of 240 GHz and maximum oscillation frequency (f_{MAX}) of 260 GHz, high-speed HBT is utilized to implement the W-band SHM IC design.

Table 4-1 Typical specifications of the SiGe NPN HBT (25 °C)

NPN type	BV_{CEO} (V)	f_t (GHz)	f_{max} (GHz)	Emitter size (μm^2)
Low voltage (with collector implant)	1.6	240	260	0.13×1

4.2 Operation principle

4.2.1 CECCTP SHMs with top-LO and bottom-LO configurations

3.3.1-a) Conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM

Figure 4-8(a) illustrates the core circuit of the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM. Load and bias circuits are not drawn for simplicity. HBT Q1 serves as a transconductance amplifier for RF input stage. HBTs Q2 and Q3 form a CECCTP stage to generate the second harmonic of the LO signal ($2*f_{LO}$). The frequency mixing principle of this SHM is very similar to the dual-gate mixer analyzed in paper [21]. The generated $2*f_{LO}$ signal modulates the collector voltage of Q1 and switches Q1 between the saturation and forward active region over $2* f_{LO}$ cycle. Since the bias current and transconductance of Q1 are modulated by $2*f_{LO}$ signal, the RF signal is mixed with the $2*f_{LO}$ signal and the IF signal ($f_{IF} = f_{RF} - 2* f_{LO}$) is generated. It is noted that the $2* f_{LO}$ power significantly influences the Q1 modulation and the conversion gain of SHM.

In order to maximize the generation of $2*f_{LO}$ signal, Q2 and Q3 are biased to work in switching mode [22], which means that when one transistor is turned on, the other one is turned off. Figure 4-8(b) shows the simplified model of the LO frequency doubling stage. For each half cycle, Q2 or Q3 works like a common emitter amplifier with a degeneration resistor R_{D1} . Hence, the magnitude of the collector current is decreased and the generation of $2*f_{LO}$ in the output current (I_{out}) is suppressed.

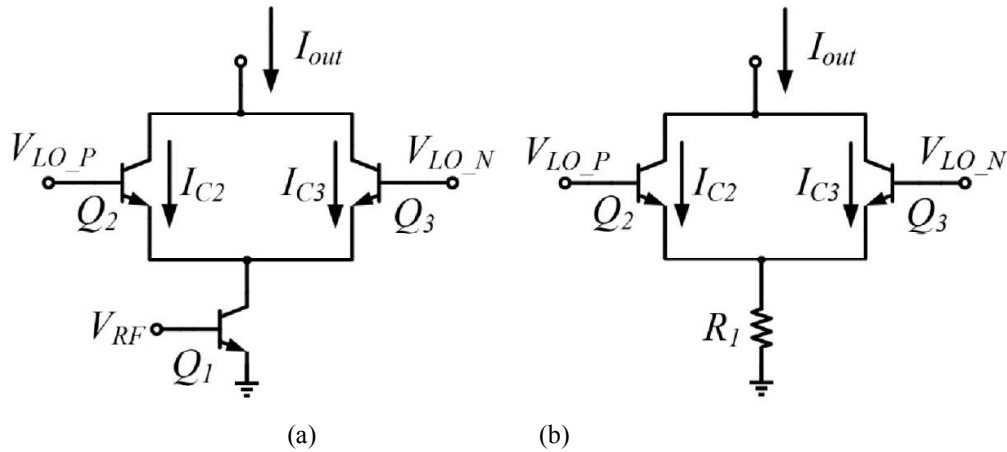


Figure 4-8. (a) Simplified schematic of the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM. (b) Modelling of the LO frequency doubling stage.

3.3.1-b) Improved bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM

Figure 4-9 shows the simplified schematic of the core of the bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM. Since the common emitter point of Q2 and Q3 is connected to ground, the CECCTP effectively enlarges the generation of $2 \cdot f_{LO}$ for mixing. Since this is a voltage-biased structure and the base-to-emitter bias voltage of Q2 and Q3 are constant, DC and $2 \cdot f_{LO}$ component of I_{out} are very sensitive to LO power. Hence, a tail current source is employed to stabilize the DC bias current, as shown in Fig. 2(b). Large shunt capacitor (C_{TAIL}) provides an ACground. This is a current-biased structure, and the potential of node A is floated. Thus, the base-to-emitter bias voltage (V_{be_bias}) of Q2 and Q3 could be adaptively changed to keep DC component of I_{out} constant and to flatten the $2 \cdot f_{LO}$ generation.

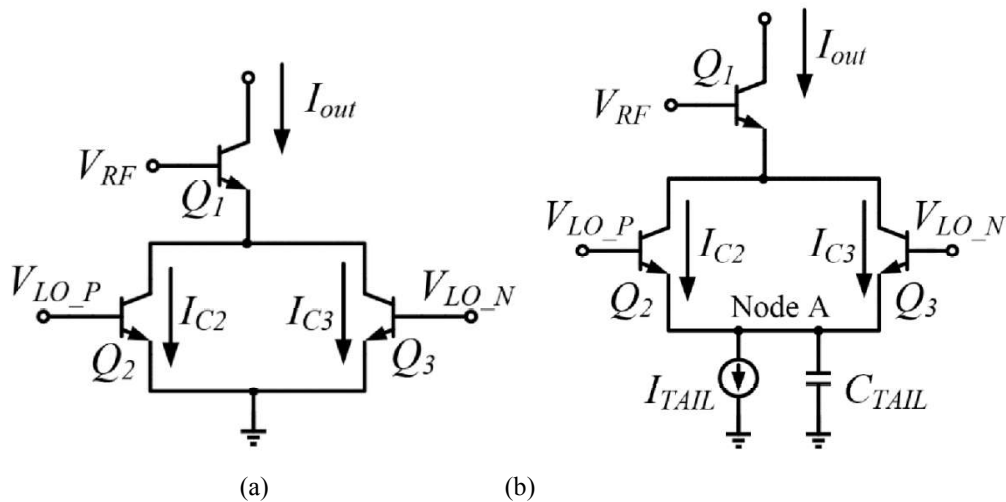


Figure 4-9. Simplified schematic of the (a) bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM. (b) bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM with tail current source.

3.3.1-b) Comparison of the SHMs with top and bottom LO configurations

Figure 4-10 shows the simulated load-lines of the HBT Q1 (solid line) in the top-LO-configured SHM in Fig. 1(a) and that of the HBT Q1 (dotted line) in the bottom-LO-configured SHM in Fig. 2(b), respectively. Since RF input is small signal and LO input is large signal, both SHMs are applied with no RF power and an LO power of -7 dBm at 39.5 GHz to simulate the load-lines of HBT Q1. In the top-LO-configured SHM, the $2*f_{LO}$ modulates the collector-to-emitter voltage (V_{ce}) and collector current (I_c) of Q1. The RF stage operates between the saturation and slightly forward active region and generates the f_{IF} signal. In the bottom-LO-configured SHM, the $2*f_{LO}$ modulates the base-to-emitter voltage (V_{be}) and collector current (I_c) of Q1. The RF stage operates in the forward active region and generates the f_{IF} signal. When the LO power is low, the bottom-LO-configured SHM generates higher $2*f_{LO}$ current swing than the top-LO-configured one, as shown in Fig. 3.

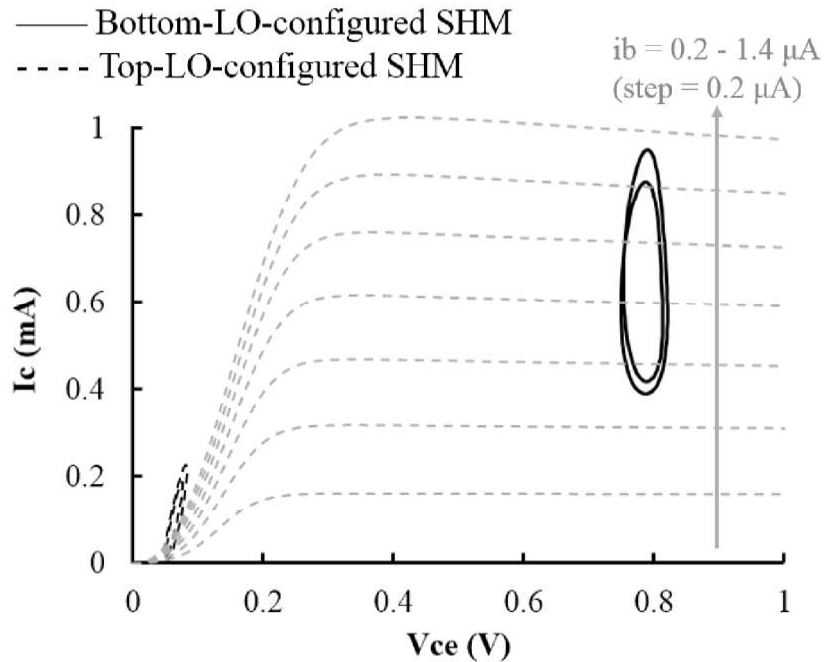


Figure 4-10. Simulated load-lines of the HBT Q1 (RF stage) in the SHMs with top and bottom LO configurations.

4.2.2 Bottom-LO-configured SHMs with and without a tail current source

In order to quantitatively analyze the difference of the $2^* f_{LO}$ generation between the circuits in Figure 4-9(a) and Figure 4-9(b), the collector current (I_c) of HBT is modeled as a train of rectified cosine pulses. Figure 4-11 shows the calculated time-domain waveforms of the collector current and base voltage in the CECCTP stage. I_{max} is the peak current of I_c . I_{C2} and I_{C3} refer to the collector current of Q2 and Q3, respectively. V_{be2} and V_{be3} refer to the base-to-emitter voltage of Q2 and Q3, respectively. V_{be_max} and V_{be_min} refer to the HBT base-to-emitter voltage swing, V_{be_on} is the threshold voltage of HBT, t_0 is the width of the current pulses, and T is the period of the fundamental frequency.

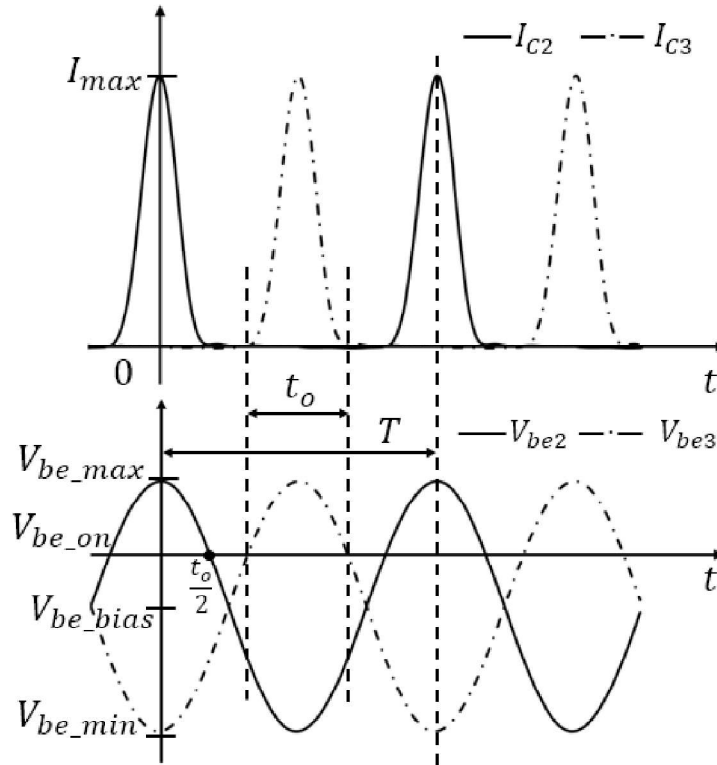


Figure 4-11. Collector current and base voltage time-domain waveforms in the CECCTP frequency doubling stage.

I_{out} can be represented using a Fourier-series expansion:

$$I_{out}(t) = I_{C2} + I_{C3} = I_0 + I_1 \cos(w_1 t) + \dots + I_n \cos(w_n t) \quad (4-4)$$

where I_n is the n th-harmonic current component. The DC component I_0 in I_{out} is:

$$I_0 = I_{max} \frac{2\theta_t}{\pi^2} \quad (4-5)$$

and the second harmonic (I_2) in I_{out} is:

$$I_2 = I_{max} \left| \frac{\theta_t \cos(\theta_t)}{\pi^2/4 - \theta_t^2} \right| \quad (4-6)$$

where θ_t is the conduction angle. When t increases from 0 to $t_0/2$, V_{be2} decreases from V_{be_max} to V_{be_on} , as shown in Figure 4-11:

$$(V_{be_max} - V_{be_bias}) \times \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{T} \times \frac{t_0}{2}\right) = V_{be_on} - V_{be_bias} \quad (4-7)$$

Hence, θ_t can be expressed as a function of V_{be_bias} , input power of LO signal (P_{LO}) and the input impedance of CECCTP frequency doubling stage (R_{LO}):

$$\theta_t = \frac{2\pi t_0}{T} = 2 \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{V_{be_on} - V_{be_bias}}{V_{be_max} - V_{be_bias}}\right) = 2 \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{V_{be_on} - V_{be_bias}}{\sqrt{2P_{LO} \times R_{LO}}}\right) \quad (4-8)$$

For simplicity, the transconductance performance of HBT is assumed to be constant when input power changes. Thus, current swing I_{max} is proportional to the voltage swing $V_{be_max} - V_{be_on}$:

$$I_{max} = g_m(V_{be_max} - V_{be_on}) = g_m \left(1 - \cos\frac{\theta_t}{2}\right) \sqrt{2P_{LO} \times R_{LO}} \quad (4-9)$$

Since V_{be_bias} is constant in Figure 4-9(a), θ_t drastically increases when P_{LO} increases, as shown in equation (4-8). From equations (4-6) and (4-9), I_2 can be expressed as:

$$I_2 = g_m \sqrt{2P_{LO} \times R_{LO}} \times \theta_t \left(1 - \cos\frac{\theta_t}{2}\right) \times \left|\frac{\cos(\theta_t)}{\pi^2/4 - \theta_t^2}\right| \quad (4-10)$$

Since I_0 is constant ($I_0 = I_{TAIL}$) and V_{be_bias} is floated in Figure 4-9, V_{be_bias} decreases and θ_t slightly decreases when P_{LO} increases, as shown in equation (4-5). From equations (4-5) and (4-6), I_2 can be expressed as:

$$I_2 = I_{TAIL} \frac{\pi^2}{2} \times \left|\frac{\cos(\theta_t)}{\pi^2/4 - \theta_t^2}\right| \quad (4-11)$$

The I_2 in equation (4-10) has additional polynomials about θ_t and P_{LO} , compared with the I_2 in equation (4-11). Hence, a tail current source could make I_2 ($2*f_{LO}$ in I_{out}) insensitive to θ_t , and meanwhile could make I_2 insensitive to P_{LO} . It is expected that the SHM with the tail current source in Figure 4-9(b) generates $2*f_{LO}$ more smoothly than the SHM in Figure 4-9(a).

Figure 4-12 shows the simulated dependence of $2*f_{LO}$ (I_2) in I_{out} on the LO input power in the conventional top-LO-configured SHM (gray solid line), the bottom-LO-configured SHM without I_{TAIL} (black dashed line) and the improved bottom-LO-configured SHM with I_{TAIL} (black solid line). Differential LO signal at 39.5 GHz is applied to the CECCTP frequency doubling stage. The improved SHM in Fig. 2(b) effectively enlarges and flattens the $2*f_{LO}$ in I_{out} with low LO input power range.

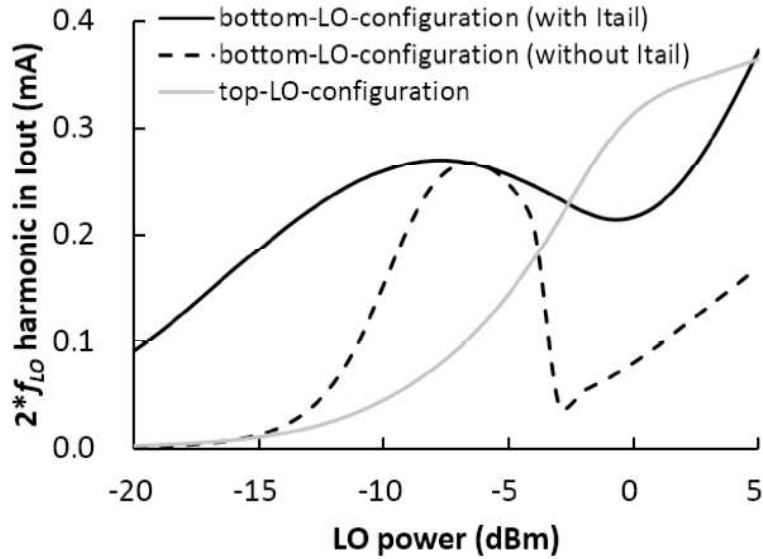


Figure 4-12. Magnitude of the $2 \cdot f_{LO}$ of I_{out} .

4.3 Circuit design

4.3.1 Schematic of VCO ICs

Figure 4-13 shows the schematic of the bottom-LO-configured SHM IC with a tail current source presented in this paper. HBTs Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4 and Q5 form the SHM core, where Q4 and Q5 serve as the tail current mirror. The supply voltage for the SHM core is 3.3 V. A one-stage emitter follower with a supply voltage of 1.8 V is employed as the IF buffer amplifier to drive a 50 Ω load. For on-wafer measurements, an integrated Marchand balun is designed at the LO input port to transfer the differential balanced 50 Ω port to a single-ended unbalanced 50 Ω port. Since the center frequencies of LO and RF signals are 39.5 GHz and 80 GHz, respectively, spiral inductors are utilized for the LO matching circuit and a microstrip line is used for the RF matching circuit.

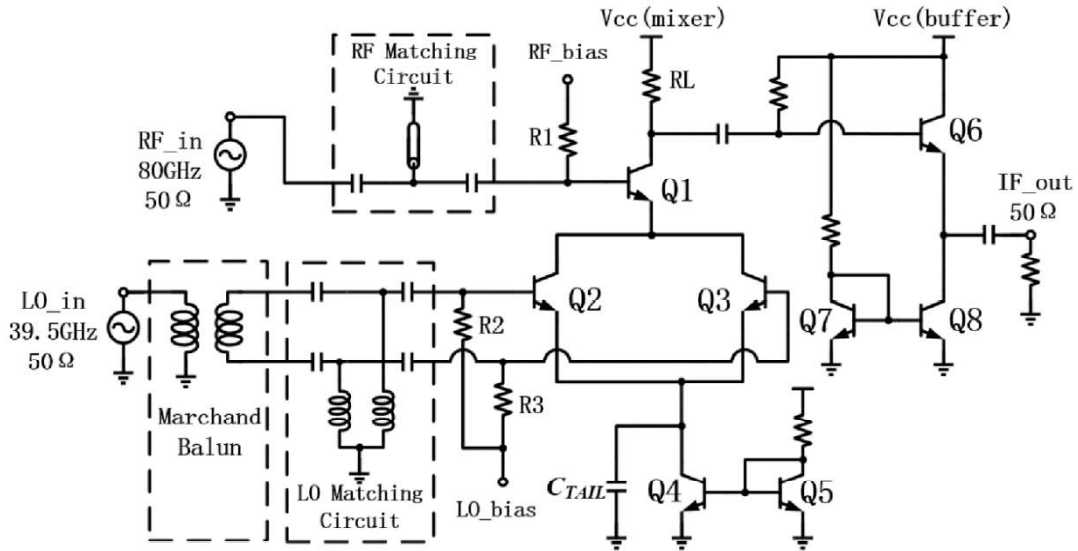


Figure 4-13. Schematic of the improved bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC with tail current source.

For comparison, the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC is also designed, as shown in Figure 4-14. HBTs Q1, Q2 and Q3 form the SHM core. The supply voltage for the conventional SHM core is 2.5 V. Both the improved and conventional SHMs employ the same IF buffer amplifiers.

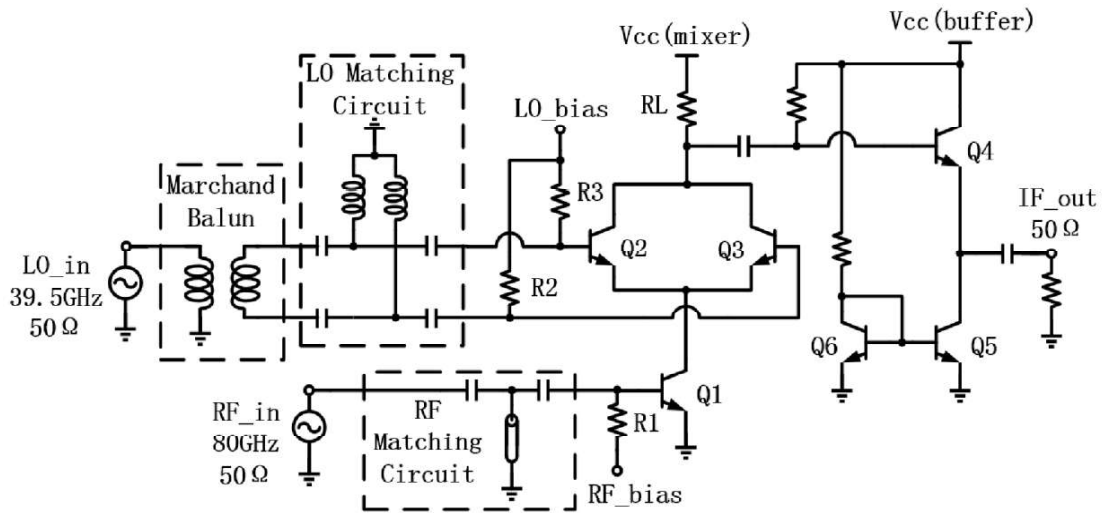


Figure 4-14. Schematic of the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC.

4.3.2 Marchand balun and layout design

Figure 4-15(a) and (b) illustrate the top and side view of the Marchand Balun IC design, respectively. As shown in Figure 4-15(a), a pair of spiral transmission lines are

employed for magnetic coupling and port transformation. As shown in Figure 4-15(b), the microstrip line consists of a signal line in the top metal M6 and a ground plane in the bottom metal M1. The M1 and M6 are separated by a $10\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ thick dielectric material. It is noted that the line width, line space and dimension have large influence on the balun performance. If the line width is decreased, the size of balun is reduced and the parasitic capacitance between M1 and M6 is decreased, however, the line resistance is increased. If the line space is decreased, magnetic coupling and capacitive coupling between the balanced and unbalanced lines are increased simultaneously. The dimension of the balun influences the length of the transmission line and shifts the operational frequency. The Marchand Balun is simulated and optimized by electromagnetic solver, Momentum. Thus, the line width and space are optimized to $6\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $3\text{ }\mu\text{m}$, respectively, as depicted in Figure 4-15(b). The dimension is optimized to $270\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ length (L) and $120\text{-}\mu\text{m}$ width (W) as shown in Figure 4-15(a).

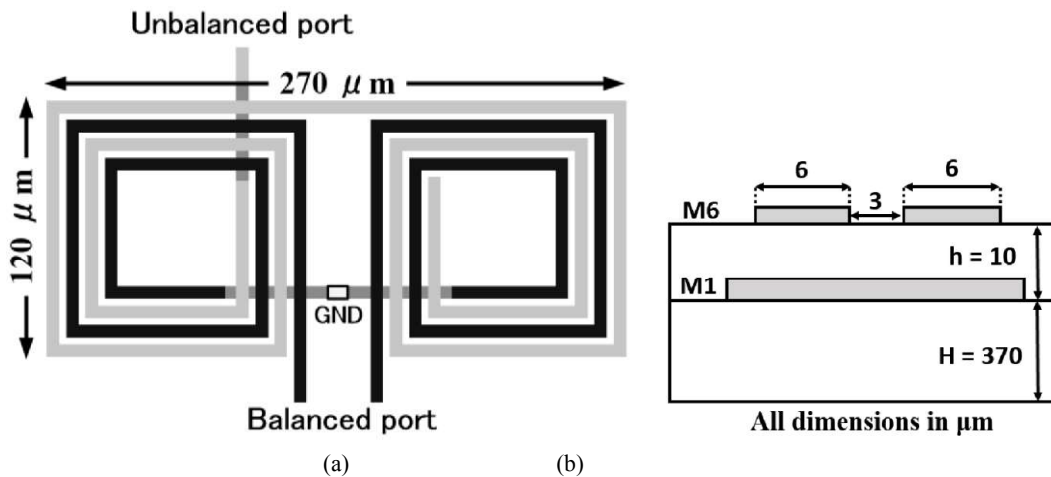


Figure 4-15.(a) Top view and (b) sideview of the Marchand balun IC.

To compare the simulated and measured performance of the Marchand balun, the balun is designed and simulated with the RF pads for on-wafer probing. Figure 4-16(a) illustrates the layout of balun and Figure 4-16(b) shows the 3D image of the current distribution of the balun in Momentum EM simulation.

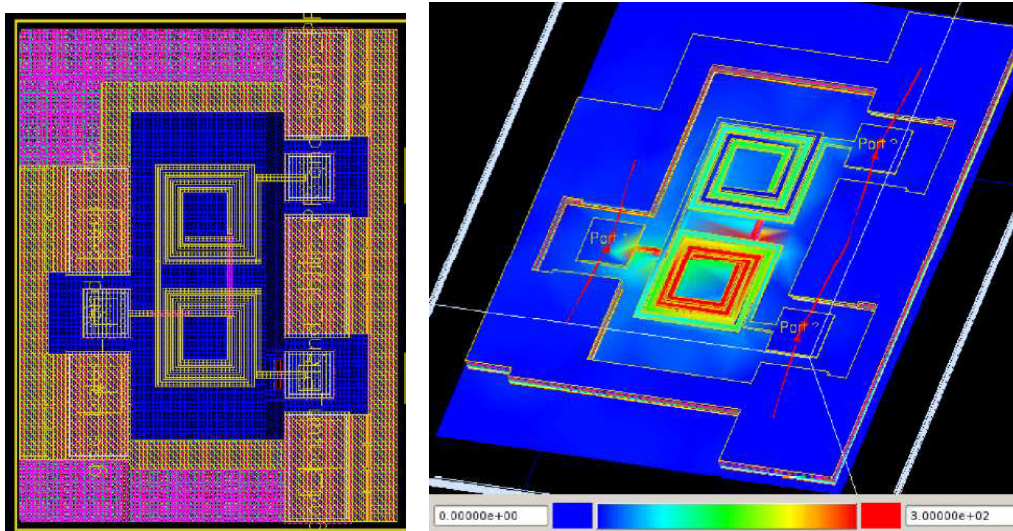


Figure 4-16. (a) layout of the Marchand balun with RF probes. (b) 3D image of current distribution of Marchand balun in Momentum EM simulation.

Figure 4-17(a) shows the layout of the improved bottom-LO SHM IC. Figure 4-17(b) and Figure 4-17(c) depict the Momentum 3D image of the LO and RF matching circuits, respectively. The design procedure for passive matching circuit is initially designing each device, such as Marchand balun, MOM capacitors and spiral inductors with EM simulation. After combining the individual devices in schematic and matching input impedance to $50\ \Omega$, all the devices are put together in layout as a whole matching circuit. Finally the performance of the entire LO and RF matching circuits are simulated and optimized by EM simulation, as shown in Figure 4-17(b) and (c).

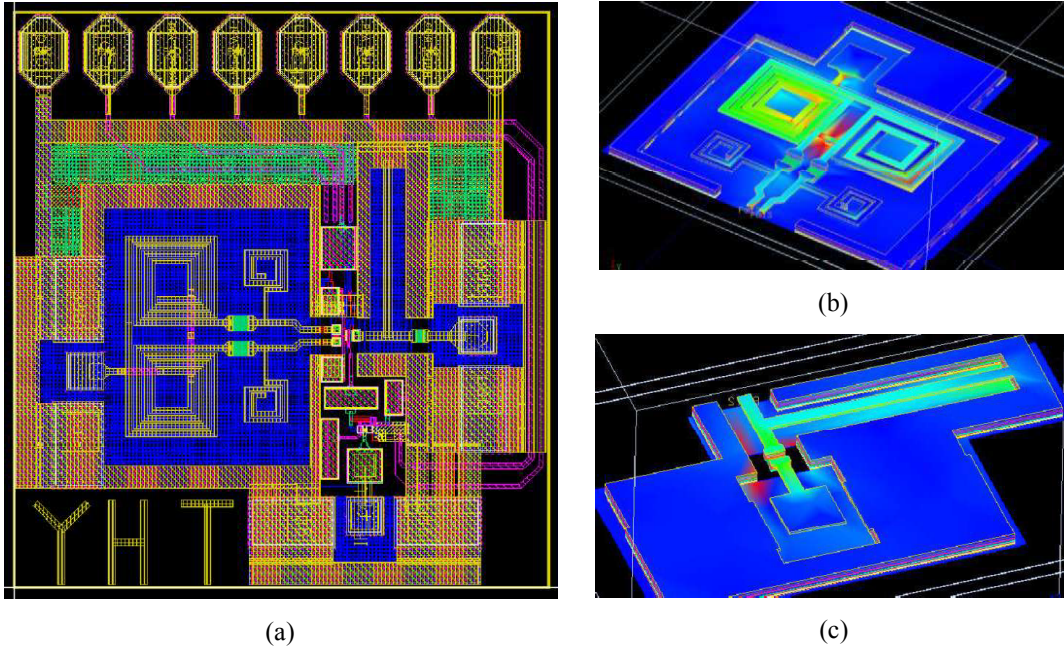


Figure 4-17. (a) layout of the improved bottom-LO-configured SHM IC, Momentum 3D image of (b) LO matching circuit and (c) RF matching circuit.

4.3.3 Simulated performance

Figure 4-18(a) shows the measured insertion loss performance. From 26 to 66 GHz, the balun IC exhibits measured insertion loss of less than 3 dB. Figure 4-18(b) illustrates the measured imbalance performance. From 20 to 66 GHz, the amplitude imbalance is less than 0.9 dB and the phase imbalance is less than 2.5 degrees.

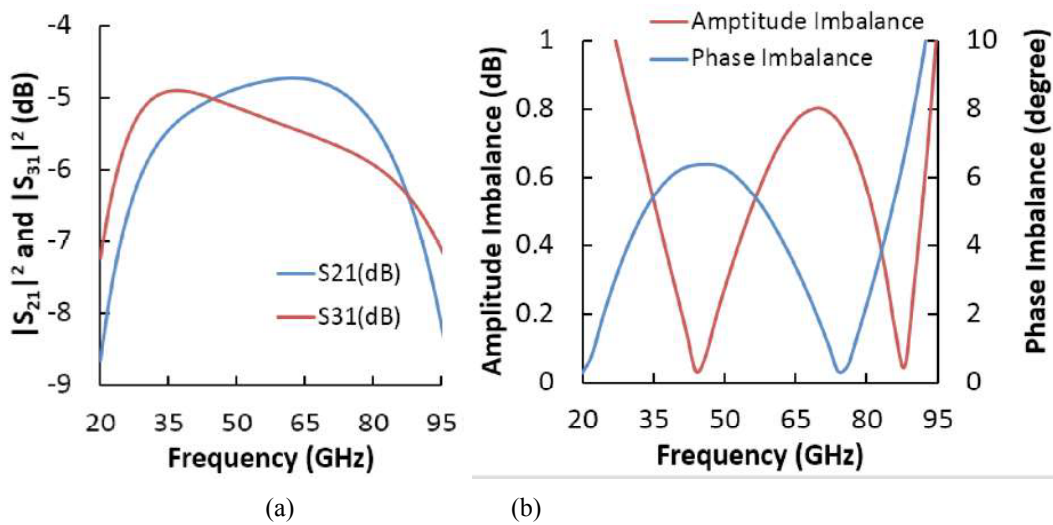


Figure 4-18. Simulated (a) insertion loss and (b) amplitude and phase imbalance.

Figure 4-19 shows the simulated dependence of the conversion power gain of both SHM ICs on the LO power. The frequencies of RF, LO and IF signals are 80 GHz, 39.5 GHz and 1 GHz, respectively. The RF power is fixed to -40 dBm, and LO power (P_{LO}) is swept from -20 to 10 dBm. The improved SHM in Figure 4-13 has a conversion power gain of 6.9 dB (including the buffer gain) at $P_{LO} = -7$ dBm. The core circuit of the improved SHM (without the buffer) consumes a DC current of 0.64 mA at a supply voltage of 3.3 V. The conventional SHM in Figure 4-14 requires $P_{LO} = -1.5$ dBm to have similar conversion power gain of 6.7 dB (including the buffer gain). The core of the conventional SHM (without the buffer) consumes a DC current of 0.27 mA at a supply voltage of 2.5 V. The dependence of the conversion gain on the LO power is similar to that of $2 * f_{LO}$ in I_{out} shown in Figure 4-12. In the top-LO-configured SHM, since the RF stage is the emitter degeneration for LO stage and the generation of $2 * f_{LO}$ is critically suppressed, the conversion gain is lower than that of the bottom-LO-configured SHM with P_{LO} lower than -2 dBm. In the bottom-LO-configured SHM, since the LO stage becomes the emitter degeneration for RF stage and the transconductance of RF stage is limited, the conversion gain is lower than that of the top-LO-configured SHM with P_{LO} higher than -2 dBm. As shown in Figure 4-19, the conversion gain of the improved SHM is higher and less sensitive to the variation of P_{LO} than that of the conventional one under P_{LO} less than -2 dBm.

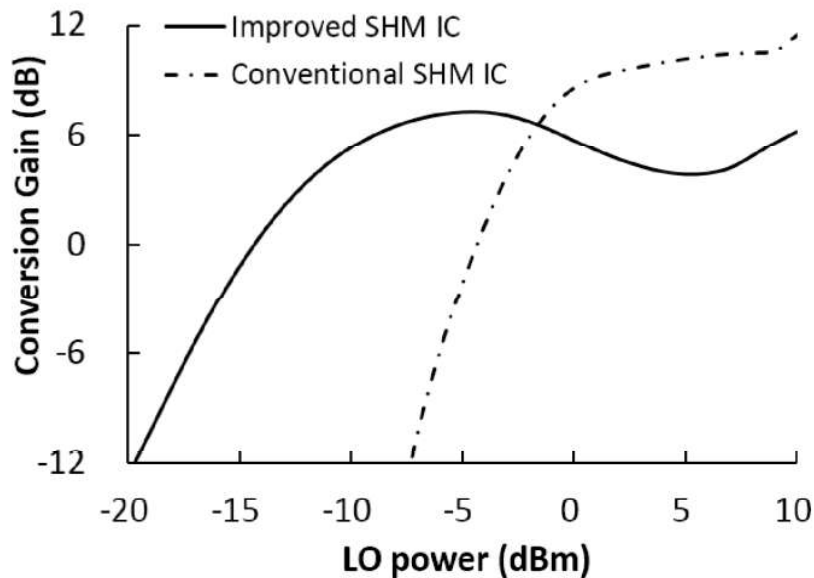


Figure 4-19. Simulated dependence of the conversion gain on LO power.

Figure 4-20 shows the simulated Double Side Band Noise Figure (DSB NF) of both SHM ICs with sweeping the LO power from -20 to 10 dBm. The frequencies of RF, LO and IF signals are 80 GHz, 39.5 GHz and 1 GHz, respectively. When P_{LO} is lower than 0 dBm, the DSB NF of the improved SHM is much lower than that of the conventional SHM.

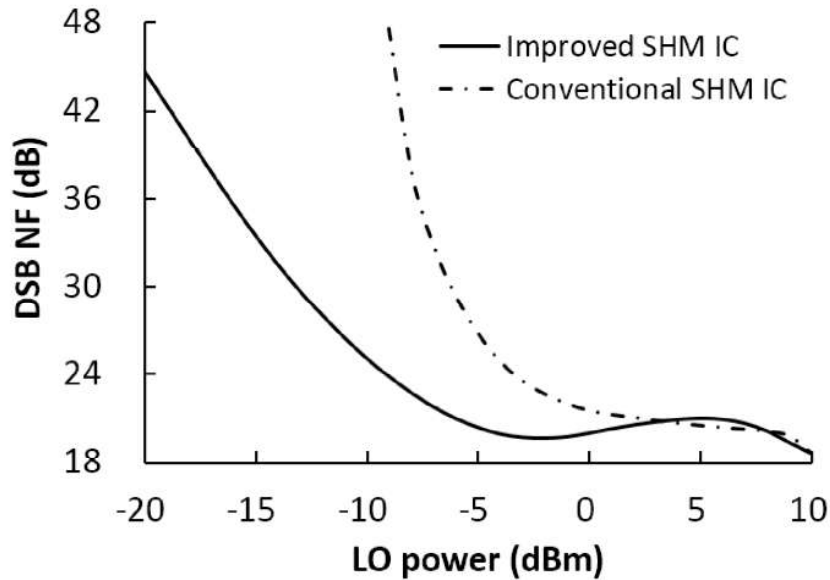


Figure 4-20. Simulated dependence of the DSB NF on LO power.

Since the noise coming from the tail current source (Q4 and Q5) is shunted by the C_{TAIL} , the tail current source has only 6.4 % noise contribution. Figure 4-21 shows the dependence of conversion gain and DSB NF on the C_{TAIL} of the improved SHM. The conditions for the simulation are the same as those for the noise contribution simulation. As shown in Figure 4-21, a large C_{TAIL} for AC ground is necessary to increase the conversion gain and decrease the DSB NF. Consequently, C_{TAIL} is chosen to 10 pF in the improved SHM circuit. The C_{TAIL} for AC ground decreases the common-mode rejection of the tail current source and might be a source of instability for a common-mode signal. It is confirmed that the SHM IC is stable from the transient simulation with sweeping LO power.

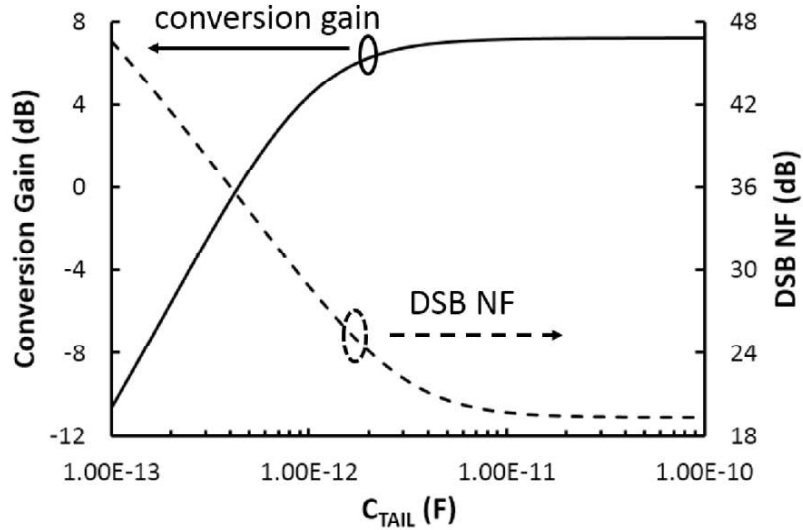


Figure 4-21. Simulated conversion gain and DSB NF of the improved SHM vs. C_{TAIL} .

Figure 4-22 shows the simulated port-to-port isolation, including the 2LO-RF, LO-RF at the RF port and the RF-IF, 2LO-IF, LO-IF at the IF port of the (a) conventional and (b) improved SHM ICs. The isolations are simulated as a function of LO frequency (f_{LO}). The f_{LO} is swept from 37.5 – 41.5 GHz and the f_{RF} is correspondingly changed from 76 – 84 GHz to keep the f_{IF} fixed to 1 GHz. Both two SHMs are applied with the RF power of -40 dBm. The conventional and improved SHMs are applied with the LO power of -1.5 dBm and -7 dBm, respectively. Both SHMs have excellent LO-RF isolation as a result of the CECCTP structure of the LO stage and the balance of the balun.

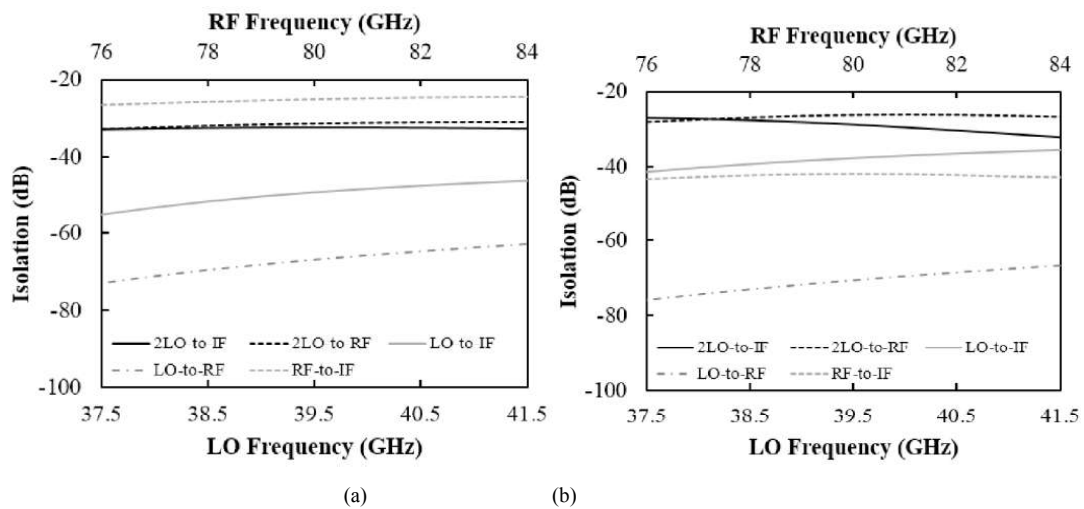


Figure 4-22. Simulated isolation of the (a) conventional SHM and (b) improved SHM vs. LO and RF frequency ($f_{IF} = 1$ GHz).

Figure 4-23 shows the simulated input-output response of the conventional and improved SHM ICs. The frequency conditions for the simulation are: $f_{RF} = 80$ GHz, $f_{LO} = 39.5$ GHz, $f_{IF} = 1$ GHz. The LO power of -1.5 dBm and -7 dBm are injected to the conventional and improved SHMs, respectively. The $IP1dB$ and $OP1dB$ of the conventional SHM are -27.0 dBm and -21.5 dBm. The $IP1dB$ and $OP1dB$ of the improved SHM are -23.0 dBm and -17.0 dBm. In the conventional SHM, since the RF stage enters the saturation region as shown in Figure 4-10, the voltage swing of the IF signal is suppressed. Thus, the $IP1dB$ of conventional SHM is lower than that of the improved one.

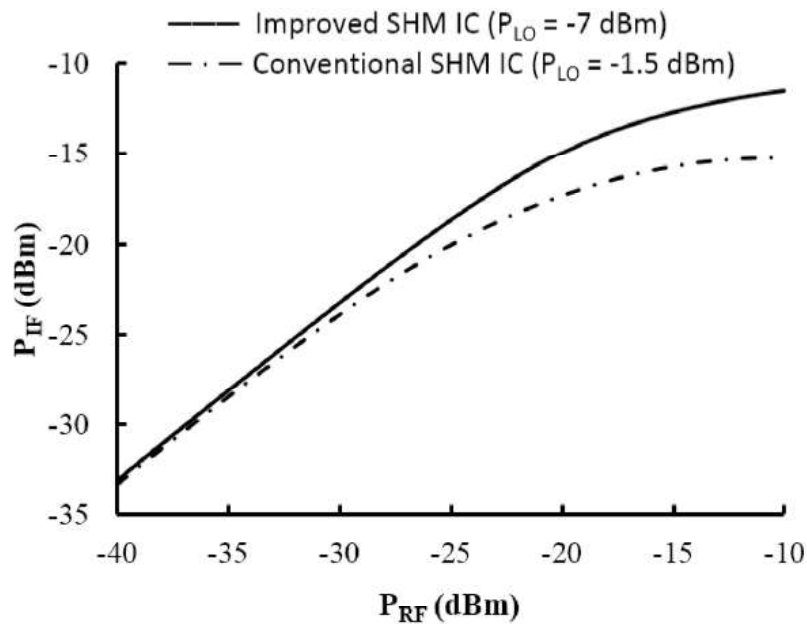


Figure 4-23. Simulated IF output power vs. RF input power.

Fig. 14 shows the simulated conversion gain of the conventional and improved SHMs as a function of the RF frequency. The f_{LO} is swept from 37.5 – 41.5 GHz and the f_{RF} is correspondingly changed from 76 – 84 GHz to keep the f_{IF} fixed to 1 GHz. The conventional and improved SHMs are applied with an LO power of -1.5 dBm and -7 dBm, respectively.

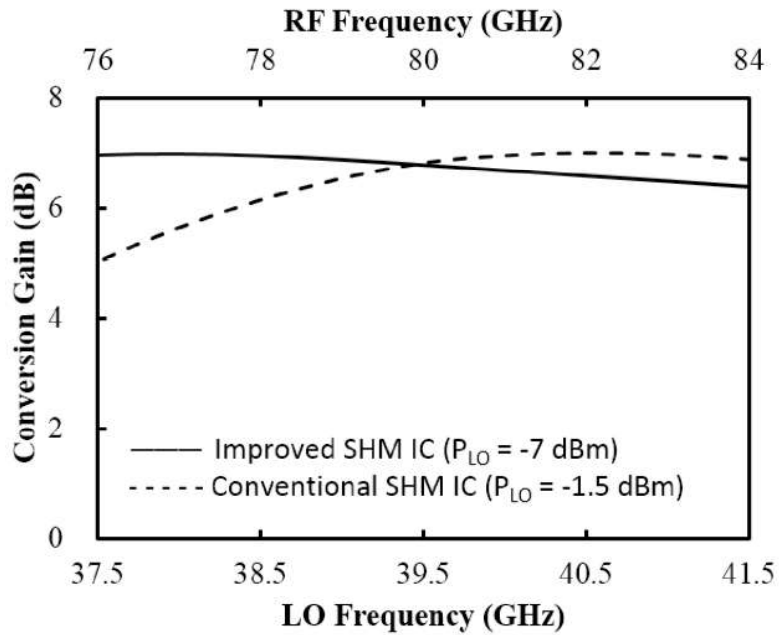


Figure 4-24. Simulated conversion gain vs. LO and RF frequency ($f_{IF} = 1$ GHz).

4.4 Measured performance

To confirm the performance of the Marchand balun, a balun IC is individually fabricated in 130-nm SiGe BiCMOS process. Figure 4-25 shows the die photograph of the balun IC and the core size is only 270 μm by 120 μm .

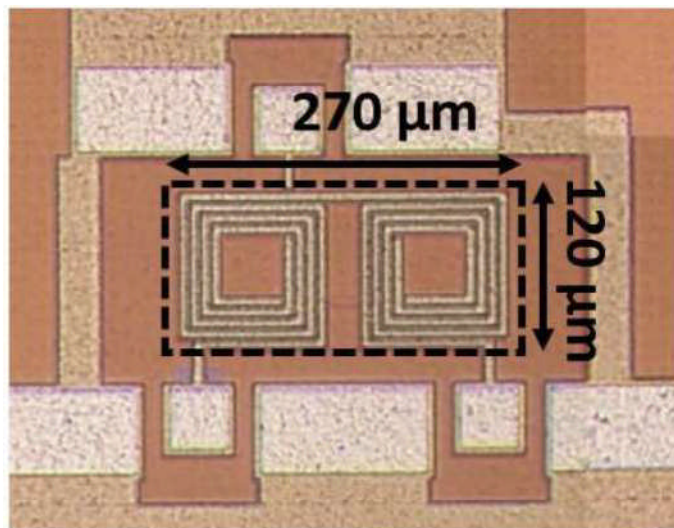


Figure 4-25. Die photograph of the Marchand Balun IC

Figure 4-26(a) shows the measured insertion loss performance. From 26 to 66 GHz, the balun IC exhibits measured insertion loss of less than 3 dB. Figure 4-26(b) illustrates

the measured imbalance performance. From 20 to 66 GHz, the amplitude imbalance is less than 0.9 dB and the phase imbalance is less than 2.5 degrees.

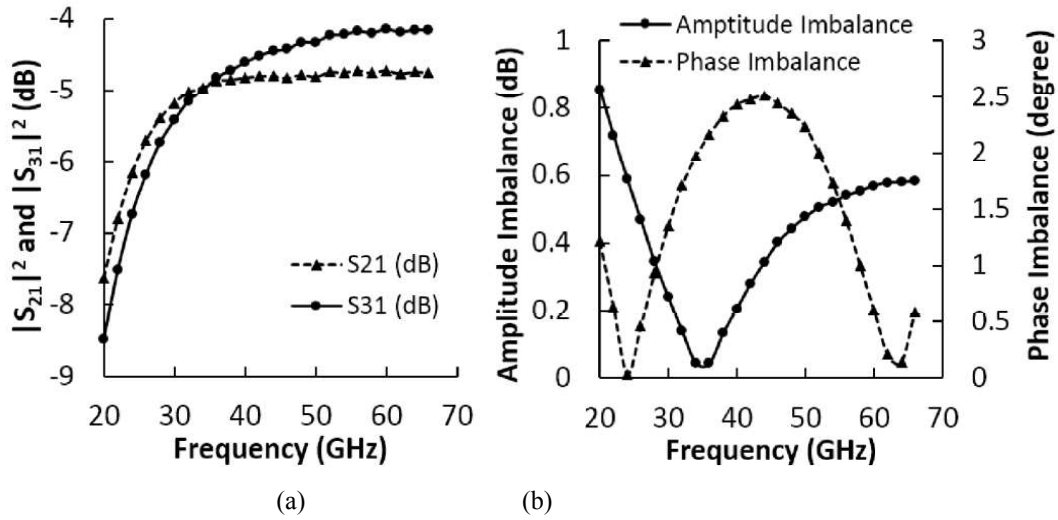


Figure 4-26. Measured (a) insertion loss and (b) amplitude and phase imbalance.

Figure 4-27(a) shows the die photograph of the bottom-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC with a tail current source presented in this paper, which has a core size of 550 μm by 460 μm . In addition, the conventional top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC is fabricated for comparison, as shown in Figure 4-27(b).

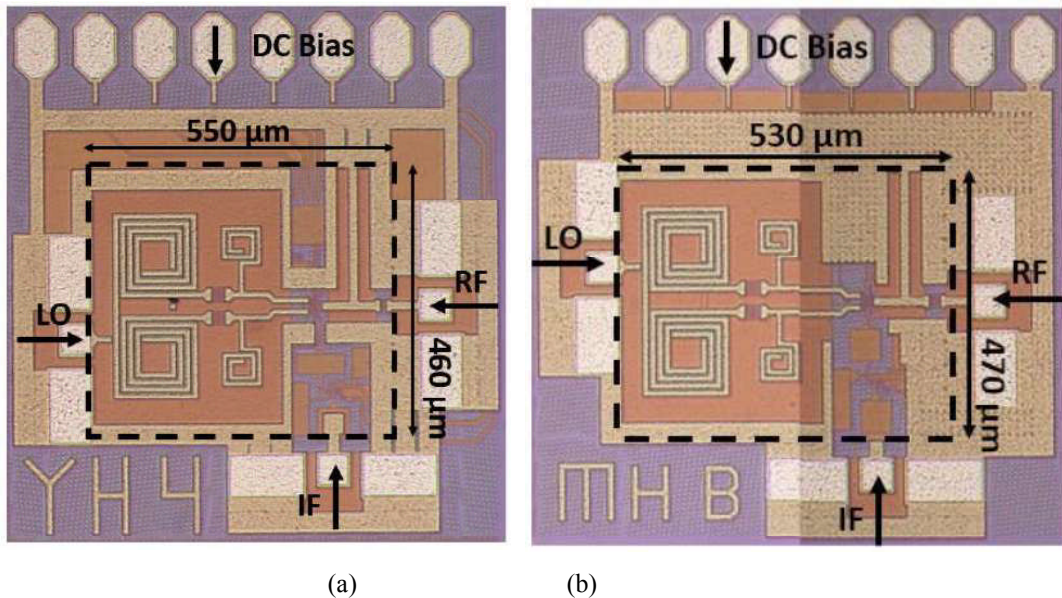


Figure 4-27. Die photograph of (a) the improved bottom-LO-configured SHM IC with a tail current source and (b) the conventional top-LO-configured SHM IC.

Figure 4-28 shows the measured dependence of the conversion power gain of the improved and conventional SHM ICs on the LO power. The measurement was carried-out on-wafer with single-ended 50- Ω system. At an RF frequency of 80 GHz and an LO frequency of 39.5 GHz (IF output frequency is 1 GHz), the improved SHM IC achieves a conversion power gain of 3.9 dB and a DC power consumption of 2.2 mW at an LO power of only -7 dBm. Considering the insertion loss of the balun as shown in Figure 4-26(a), the actual input power is around -9 dBm. The conventional top-LO-configured one has a conversion power gain of 1.9 dB with a power consumption of 1.1 mW at an LO power of -1.5 dBm.

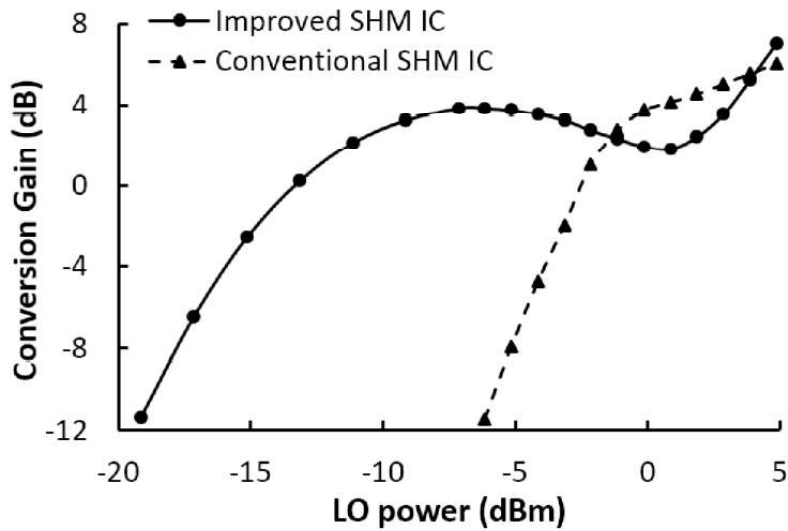


Figure 4-28. Measured dependence of the conversion gain on the LO power (conditions: $f_{RF} = 80$ GHz, $f_{LO} = 39.5$ GHz, $f_{IF} = 1$ GHz).

Figure 4-29 shows the simulated and measured input return loss at (a) LO port and (b) RF port of the improved SHM IC with -7 dBm LO input power injected. The return loss of the LO port is better than 10 dB from 36.1 to 40.6 GHz. The return loss of the RF port is better than 10 dB from 78 to 82.7 GHz. The measured return losses well agree with the simulation.

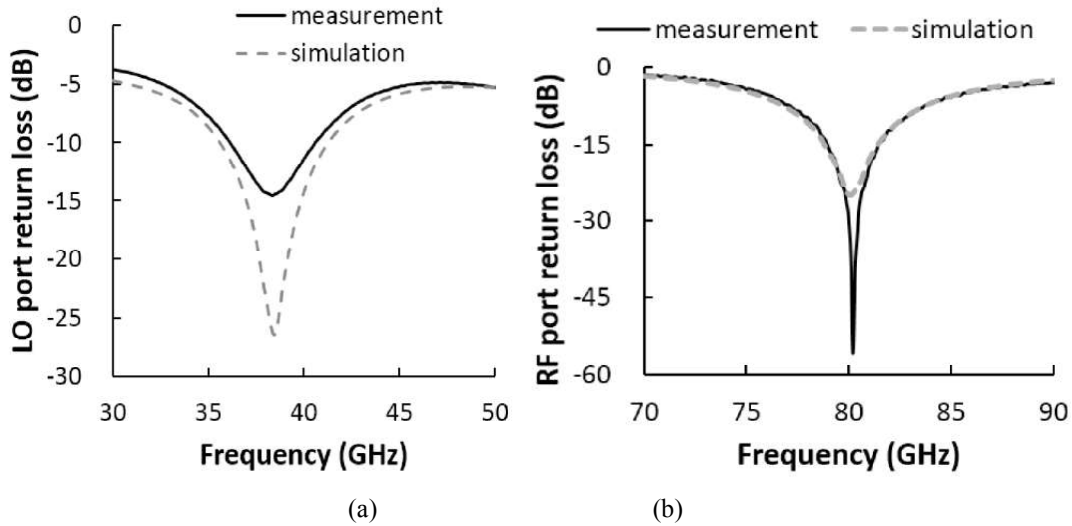


Figure 4-29. Measured and simulated input return loss of the (a) LO port and (b) RF port of the improved SHM IC.

Figure 4-30 depicts the simulated and measured IF frequency response of the conversion gain of the improved SHM IC. RF frequency is fixed to 80 GHz and RF power is fixed to -37 dBm. LO input power is fixed to -7 dBm and LO frequency is swept from 39.95 GHz to 39.25 GHz. Thus, IF frequency changes from 100 MHz to 1.5 GHz. When IF frequency is below 200 MHz, the conversion gain decreases with IF frequency decreasing because the capacitors are not large enough for DC block and AC ground. When the IF frequency is above 500 MHz, the conversion gain decreases with IF frequency increasing as a result of the frequency response of the buffer amplifier.

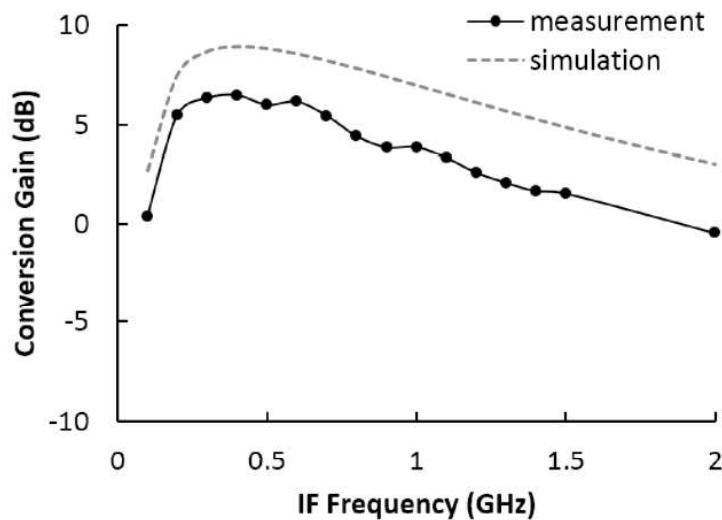


Figure 4-30. Measured and simulated conversion gain versus IF frequency of the improved SHM IC (conditions: $f_{RF} = 80$ GHz, $f_{LO} = (f_{RF} - f_{IF})/2$, $P_{LO} = -7$ dBm).

Figure 4-31 shows the simulated and measured input-output response of the improved SHM IC with an LO power of -7 dBm at 39.5 GHz. The frequencies of RF and IF signals are 80 GHz and 1 GHz, respectively. The measured IP1dB and OP1dB are -27 dBm and -25 dBm, respectively.

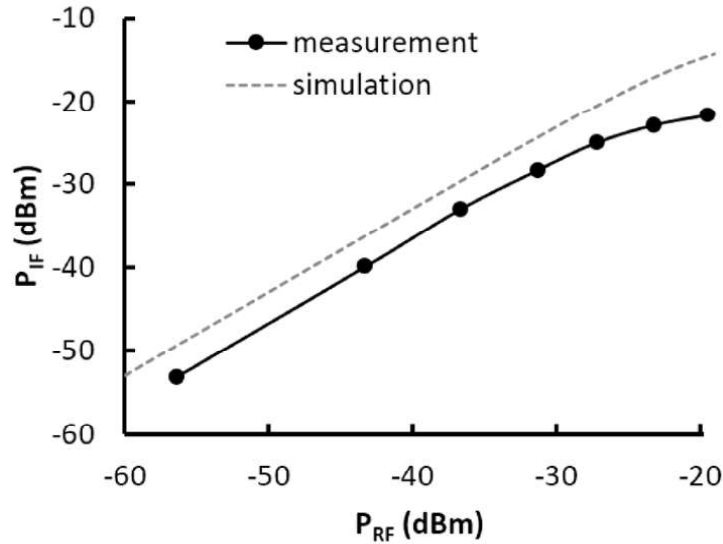


Figure 4-31. Measured and simulated IF power vs. RF power of the improved SHM IC (conditions: $f_{RF} = 80$ GHz, $f_{LO} = 39.5$ GHz, $f_{IF} = 1$ GHz, $P_{LO} = -7$ dBm).

Table 2 summarizes the measured performance of the fabricated CECCTP SHM ICs with previously published W-band SHM ICs. W-band SHM ICs utilizing the passive Sub-Harmonically Pumped (SHP) diode topology require high LO power and suffer from the conversion loss. Compared to the active SHMs in [4, 5, 15], the LO-bottom-configured SHM IC presented in this paper has exhibited higher conversion gain with lower LO power and ultra-low power consumption.

Table 2. Summary and comparison of the W-band SHM ICs

Ref	Process	fRF (GHz)	PLO (dBm)	Conversion Gain (dB)	DC power (mW)	Chip size (um * um)	Topologies
[3]	GaAs diode	90	10	-8	0	0.6*0.25	Passive diode
[4]	100-nm GaAs pHEMT	91	6	-2	12	1.4*0.8	Sub-harmonically pumped gate
[5]	0.8 μm SiGe BiCMOS	77	10	0.7 1)	22	0.9 * 0.86	Balanced SHM
[15]	90 nm CMOS	70	10	-1.5	58	0.61 * 0.58	Top-LO-levelled Gilbert-cell SHM
[23]	0.1 μm InP HEMT	94	2	-9.5	0	2.35 * 1.1	Passive diode
[24]	0.15 μm GaAs pHEMT	80	10	-10	0	1.5 * 2.0	Passive diode
[25]	0.15 μm GaAs pHEMT	77	7	-11	0	2.5 * 1	Passive diode
[26]	0.15 μm GaAs pHEMT	89	11	-4.7	0	1 * 2	Passive diode
[27]	1 um InP DHBT	83	6	1	N.A.	1.37 * 1.41	Active single HBT doubler & mixer
[28]	UMS BES Schottky diode	90	0	-13	0.	1.4 *1.4	Passive diode
[29]	Quasi-monolithic GaAs Schottky diode	90	10	-8	0	2.2 * 4.0	Passive diode
This work	130-nmSiGe BiCMOS	80	-7 2)	3.9	2.2	0.55 * 0.46	Novelbottom-LO-configured SHM with tail current source
		80	-1.5 2)	1.9	1.1	0.55 * 0.46	Previousstop-LO-configured SHM

1) Includes 11 dB gain of the IF buffer amplifier.

2) Includes 2 dB insertion loss of the balun.

4.5 Conclusion

In this chapter, aCECCTP SHM IC with a tail current source bias circuit and bottom-LO-configuration is proposed for W-band applications. The proposed SHM IC has been designed, fabricated using 130-nmSiGe BiCMOS process and tested on wafer.

In the previous top-LO-configured CECCTP SHM IC, large LO power is required to generate the $2*f_{LO}$ signal for mixing. In this work, LO stage is swapped from the top-LO configuration to bottom-LO configuration. Thus, the emitter degeneration of the LO stage is removed, which significantly decreases the LO power requirement of the SHM. Since the bottom-LO-configuration makes the conversion gain of SHM sensitive to the LO power, tail current source bias circuit parallel with large capacitor for ac ground is proposed. With the tail source bias circuit, the LO stage has floating V_{gs} bias

voltage and constant dc bias current. When LO power changes, the variation of conduction angle of LO stage is suppressed and the generation of $2f_{LO}$ signal is flattened. Thus, the SHM with tail current source has conversion gain insensitive to the LO power.

The SHM IC exhibits a measured conversion gain of 3.9 dB at 80 GHz with an LO power of only -7 dBm at 39.5 GHz. The DC power consumption of the SHM IC is only 2.2 mW. The measured performance confirms that the bottom-LO-configuration decreases the requirement of LO power and the tail current source makes the conversion gain insensitive to the variation of LO power. Therefore, the proposed SHM topology decreases the output power of LO buffer and removes output power control circuit of the LO buffer, which is effective to decrease the power consumption of LO buffer. Considering that the LO buffer significantly influences the power consumption of transceiver, it is expected that the proposed topology could decrease the power consumption of transceiver.

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Chapter 5 Conclusions and Future Works

5.1 Conclusions of this dissertation

In this dissertation, adaptive bias techniques are proposed to automatically change the bias conditions of RF IC blocks and to decrease the power consumption. Three RF ICs with different adaptive bias circuits including the VCO IC, PA IC and SHM IC are designed, fabricated and verified by measurement. The measurement performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed adaptive bias circuits on decreasing the power consumption.

In Chapter 2, an adaptive bias circuit is proposed to dynamically control the bias current of the SiGe HBT PA IC. With the utilization of an open loop common source feedback amplifier, the proposed adaptive bias circuit works like a regulator with excellent DC sourcing capability and keeps the base-to-emitter (V_{be}) bias voltage constant over the variation of RF input power. When RF input power is low, the bias circuit supplies low I_b and I_c , which decreases the power consumption and improves the efficiency of PA. When RF input power is high, the bias circuit sufficiently supplies high I_b and I_c , which increases the swing range of output current and improves the linearity of PA.

A 5-GHz band three-stage SiGe PA IC with the proposed adaptive bias circuit has been demonstrated in 350-nm SiGe BiCMOS technology for WLAN applications. Under 54 Mbps OFDM signal at 5.4 GHz, the PA IC has achieved a measured EVM of 0.9% with 284 mA DC current consumption at 17 dBm output power, and an EVM of 4.2% with 330 mA DC current consumption at 20.3 dBm output power. The measured linearity performance well satisfies the requirements of IEEE 802.11a WLAN standards and confirms the linearity improvement to PA IC by the proposed adaptive bias circuit. The measured performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed adaptive bias circuit on decreasing the power consumption of PA IC.

In Chapter 3, an amplitude feedback bias circuit is proposed to dynamically control the bias voltage of the CMOS VCO IC. Initially, the bias circuit supplies the LC-VCO with Class-AB bias for robust oscillation start-up. After oscillation, the bias circuit dynamically decreases the bias voltage and shifts the LC-VCO into low V_{gs} bias for steady low power oscillation.

A 2.4-GHz-band ultra-low-voltage VCO IC with the proposed adaptive bias circuit has been demonstrated using 65-nm CMOS process. Measurement results including a low power consumption of 0.58 mW, a phase noise of -111 dBc/Hz and an FOM of 181 dBc/Hz are achieved at a power supply of only 0.3 V. The measured performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed adaptive bias circuit on decreasing the power consumption of VCO IC.

In Chapter 4, a tail current source is proposed to dynamically control the V_{be} bias of bottom-LO-configured SiGe HBT SHM IC. In this work, LO stage is swapped from the top configuration to bottom configuration. Thus, the emitter degeneration of the LO stage is removed, which decreases the LO power requirement of the SHM. Since the bottom-LO-configuration makes the conversion gain of SHM sensitive to the LO power, tail current source bias circuit parallel with large capacitor as ac ground is proposed to flatten the conversion gain. With the tail source bias circuit, the LO doubling stage has floating V_{be} bias voltage and constant dc bias current. When LO power changes, the variation of conduction angle in the LO doubling stage is suppressed and the generation of $2*f_{LO}$ signal is flattened. Thus, the SHM with tail current source has conversion gain insensitive to the LO power.

A W-band bottom-LO-configured down-conversion SiGe HBT SHM IC with the proposed adaptive bias circuit has been demonstrated in 130-nm SiGe BiCMOS process. The SHM IC has exhibited a measured conversion gain of 3.9 dB at 80 GHz with an LO power of only -7 dBm at 39.5 GHz. The DC power consumption of the SHM IC is only 2.2 mW. The measured performance confirms that the bottom-LO-configuration decreases the requirement of LO power and the proposed tail current source makes the conversion gain insensitive to the variation of LO power. The measured performance confirms the effectiveness of the proposed adaptive bias circuit on decreasing the power consumption of LO buffer.

In summary, chip fabrications and measurements have confirmed that the proposed adaptive bias circuits are effective to decrease the power consumption of PA, VCO and LO buffer. In the transceiver, PA is most power consuming block. VCO and LO buffer have significant power consumption. Consequently, it is expected that the proposed RF ICs with adaptive bias circuits could decrease the power consumption of the transceiver for wireless communications.

5.2 Futureworks

Futureworkson the adaptivebias circuits will be considered toimprove the reliability of the adaptivebias circuitswhenthere are variations of process, voltage and temperature (PVT). Since the PVT characteristics of the CMOS devices and HBT device are quite different, the brief direction to design the adaptivebiascircuits with PVT compensationwill be independently described in the following.

5.2.1 Future workonbias techniques forPA IC

Future work of adaptivebias circuit for PAICpresented in Chapter 3 will be focus on improving the reliability of the regulatorbias circuit over the variations of PVT.A small numberof paper temperature compensation for HBT PA IC were reported [11], [12].In the future, the regular bias circuitwould be improvedby adding temperature compensationand improving the Power Supply Rejection Ratio (PSRR).

The transconductance (g_m) of NPN HBT is:

$$g_m = \frac{I_S}{V_T} e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} = \frac{qAT^{3-n}}{k} e^{\frac{q}{kT}(V_{BE}-V_{G0})} \propto T^{3-n} e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}} \quad (5-1)$$

where V_T is the thermal voltage and I_S is the reverse saturation current of the base emitter diode, respectively. V_{BE} is the base-to-emitter bias voltage of HBT. A is a temperature-independence quantity. V_{G0} is the band-gap voltage of silicon extrapolated 0 °K, n is dependent on the doping level in the base.It is noted by $n \approx 0.5$ in the SiGe process and the influence of T^{3-n} on g_m is much larger than that of $e^{\frac{V_{BE}}{V_T}}$.

Figure 5-1shows an image of the dependence of g_m on V_{be} with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C(HBT with emitter finger length of 20 μm , finger width of 0.8 μm and emitter stripes of 3, and $V_{ce} = 3.3$ V). When the temperature increases, g_m dramatically increases. Hence, when temperature increases, V_{be} of RF amplifying HBT should be decreased by the adaptivebias circuit to suppress the variation of g_m and to maintain the power gain of PA. Since the g_m is sensitive to V_{be} bias voltage, the bias circuit should provide a constant V_{be} bias voltage over the variation of supply voltage.It is noted that for the PA IC design in Chapter 2, the bias voltage of RF HBT as shown in Figure 2-9is:

$$V_{be} = V_{TH3} + \sqrt{\frac{2I_{REF}W_2L_1L_3}{\mu C_{OX}W_1W_3L_2}} \quad (5-2)$$

Hence, when temperature increases, the reference current (I_{REF}) should be decreased to decrease V_{be} bias, to keep the HBT g_m constant and to keep the PA gain constant. In addition, improving the PSRR of the bias circuit is also an important work in the future.

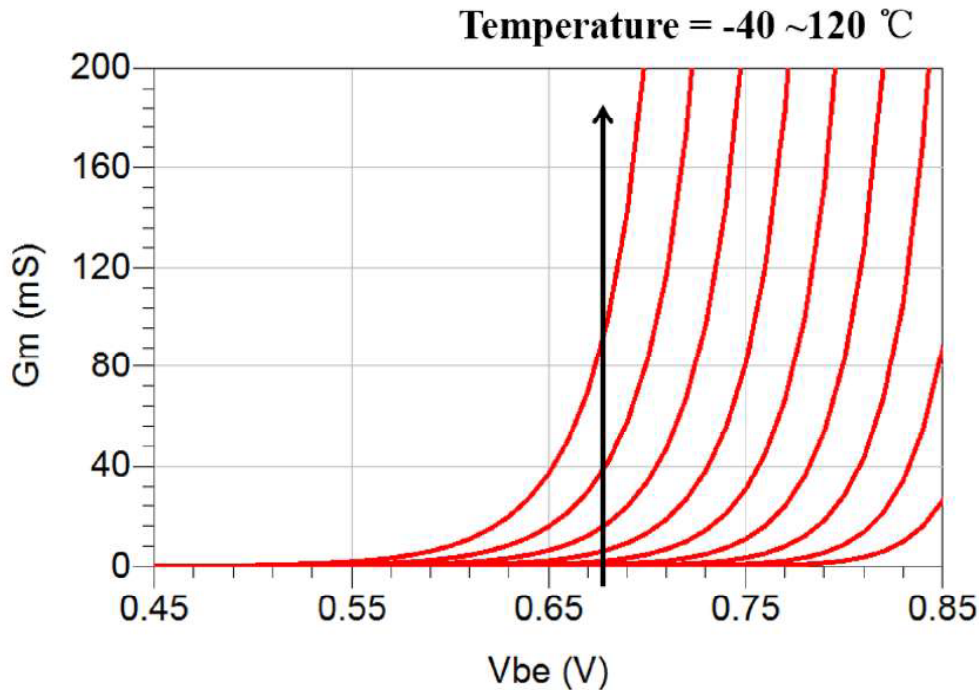


Figure 5-1. g_m of NPN HBT vs. V_{be} with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C.

5.2.2 Future work on bias techniques for VCO IC

Future work of an adaptive bias circuit for VCO IC presented in Chapter 2 will be focus on improving the reliability of the amplitude feedback loop over the variations of PVT. The CMOS VCO ICs with temperature compensation operating at a standard power supply (generally higher than 1 V) were previously reported in [1]-[9]. Few papers reported temperature compensation solutions for ultra-low-voltage VCO ICs. In the future, I will improve the amplitude feedback loop to make the bias voltage at the low power oscillation state dynamically changed over the PVT variations for ultra-low-voltage applications. The critical issue is how to make the transconductance of the cross-coupled nMOSFETs constant and to realize a reliable oscillation.

The transconductance (g_m) of nMOSFET is:

$$g_m = \mu_n C_{ox} \frac{W}{L} (V_{GS} - V_{TH})(1 + \lambda V_{DS}) \quad (5-3)$$

where μ is the charge-carrier effective mobility. C_{ox} is capacitance of the oxide layer. λ is the channel-length modulation parameter. V_{TH} is the threshold voltage of nMOSFET. V_{GS} and V_{DS} are the gate-to-source and drain-to-source bias voltage of the nMOSFET, respectively.

Figure 5-2 shows an image of the dependence of g_m on V_{gs} with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C. When the temperature increases, V_{TH} decreases and μ decreases. As shown in Figure 5-2, if the V_{gs} bias is low, g_m increases with temperature increasing, which is mainly caused by the decrease of V_{TH} . If the V_{gs} bias is high, g_m decreases with temperature increasing, which is mainly caused by the decrease of μ .

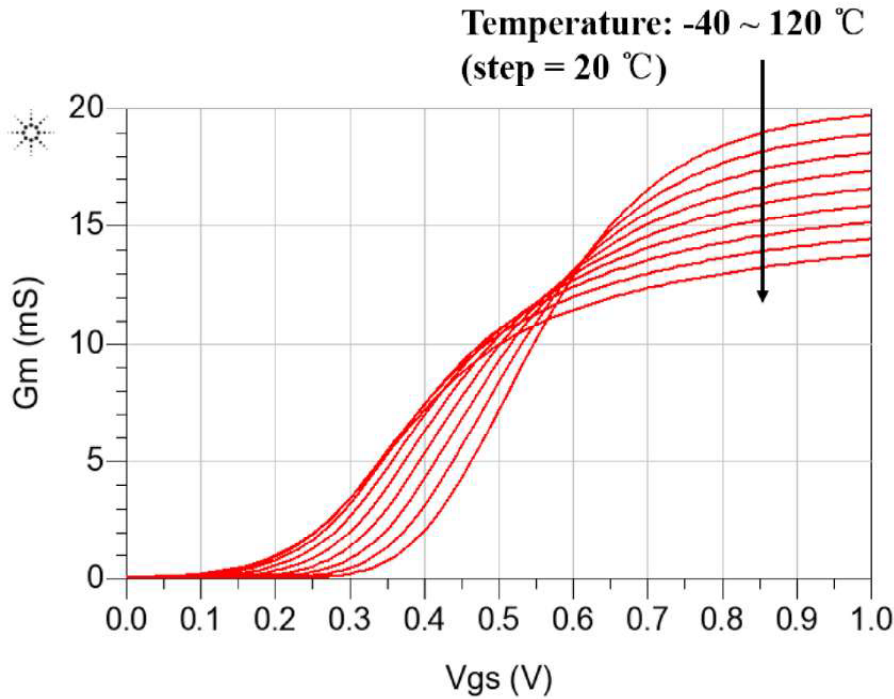


Figure 5-2. g_m of nMOSFET vs. V_{gs} with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C.

Considering the low power VCO IC in Chapter 2 is biased at low V_{gs} for steady oscillation, the bias voltage should be decreased to maintain the g_m with temperature increasing. Similarly, the process variation mainly influences the V_{TH} of transistor. If the process at FF corner, V_{TH} are low and the bias voltage should be decreased should maintain the $V_{GS} - V_{TH}$. Vice versa, if the process at SS corner, the bias voltage should be increased. When the supply voltage (V_{dd}) increases, pMOSFET bias voltage should be increased simultaneously with V_{dd} and nMOSFET bias voltage should be keep

constant.

The paper [1] presents a considerable solution for the reliability improvement. However, temperature and voltage variation ranges in [1] are narrow and the process only contains the FF, SS and TT. Hence, further research will be conducted on how to provide a more accurate bias voltage to compensate PVT variations and cover all the process variations (FF, FT, FS, TF, TT, TS, SF, ST, SS).

In the frequency synthesizer, the control voltage for frequency tuning (V_{ctrl}) of VCO is controlled by a Phase Locked Loop (PLL), and bias voltage (V_{bias}) of VCO is controlled by the proposed adaptive bias circuit (amplitude feedback loop). Hence, to ensure the operation of PLL, the settling time of adaptive bias circuit should be shorter than the settling time of PLL. To decrease the settling time of adaptive bias circuit, it is considerable to simplify the amplitude feedback loop with removing some dc level shifters and dc buffer amplifiers. In addition, decreasing the resistance and capacitance of the RC low-pass filter could also decrease the time constant ($=RC$) of filter and could decrease the settling time. However, decreasing RC increases the fluctuation of VCO bias voltage, which might decrease the stability of feedback loop and degrade the VCO phase noise. Hence, the parameter of RC filter should be carefully designed by transient simulation.

5.2.3 Future work on bias techniques for SHM IC

Future work of adaptive bias circuit for SHM IC presented in Chapter 4 will be also focus on improving the reliability of the regulator bias circuit over the variations of temperature. However, the temperature compensation method for Chapter 3 and Chapter 4 are quite different.

In Chapter 3, the proposed bias circuit fixes the V_{be} bias voltage of the RF amplifying HBT and dynamically increases the bias current with RF input power increasing. In the Chapter 4, the proposed tail current bias configuration fixes the bias current in the LO doubling stage of the bottom-LO-configured SHM IC, and dynamically decreases the V_{be} bias voltage of the LO doubling HBTs to flatten the conversion gain with LO power increasing. Hence, the temperature compensation will be considered to control the bias current of the tail current source. The transconductance (g_m) of NPN HBT in equation (5-1) can also be expressed as:

$$g_m = \frac{I_C}{V_T} = \frac{qI_C}{kT} \quad (5-4)$$

Figure 5-3 shows an image of the dependence of g_m on V_{be} with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C (HBT with emitter finger length of 10 μm , finger width of 0.12 μm and emitter stripes of 1 , and $V_{ce} = 1.2$ V). When the temperature increases, g_m with the same I_C bias slightly decreases. Hence, when the temperature increases, the tail current source should increase bias current of the SHM IC to maintain the g_m of the LO doubling HBT and to make the $2^* f_{LO}$ generation and conversion gain insensitive to the temperature variation.

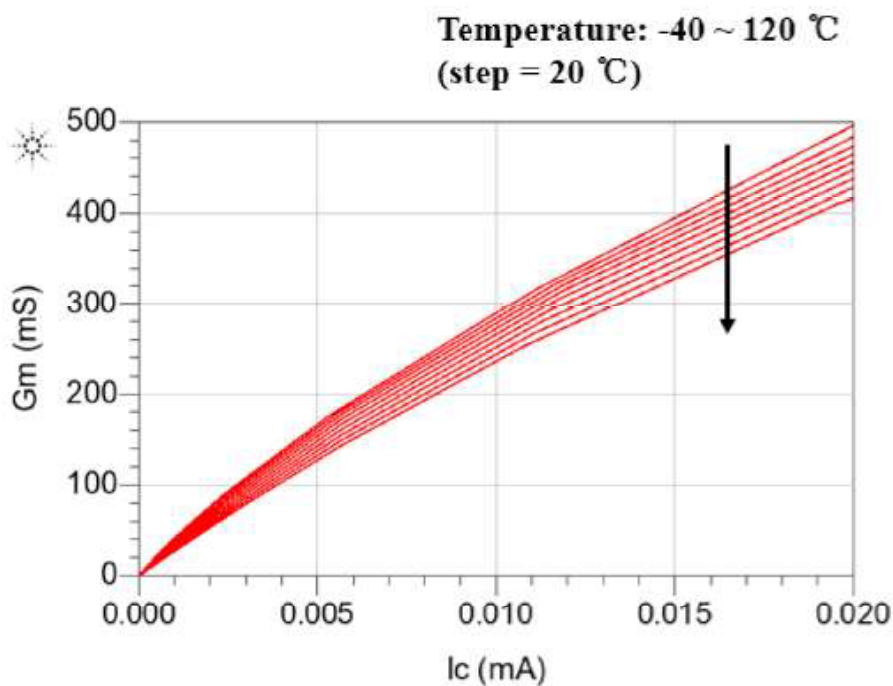


Figure 5-3. g_m of NPN HBT vs. I_C with temperature increasing from -40 to 120 °C.

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